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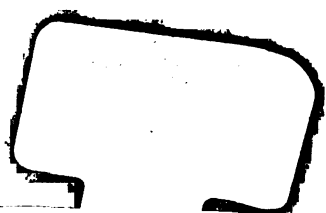
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B. H.

THE
CRITICAL REVIEW:
OR,
Annals of Literature.

BY
A SOCIETY of GENTLEMEN.

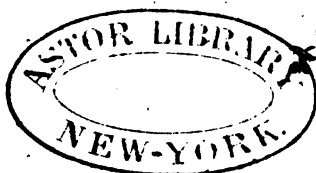
VOLUME the SIXTY-FIRST.

——— *Nothing extenuate,
Nor set down aught in malice.*

SHAKESPEARE.

*Ploravere suis non respondere favorem
Speratum meritis*———

HOR.



L O N D O N,
Printed for A. HAMILTON, in Falcon-Court, Fleet-street.
MDCCLXXXVI.

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T H R

T H E

CRITICAL REVIEW.

For J A N U A R Y, 1786.

Bhāgvet-Gītā : or, Dialogues of Krēṣṇā and Ārjōn; in Eighteen Lectures. With Notes. Translated from the Original in the Sāṁskrēt, or ancient Language of the Brāhmāns, by Charles Wilkins. 4to. 7s. 6d. Nourse.

THIS work is published by the authority of the court of directors of the East India company, as well as at the particular desire and recommendation of the late governor-general of India: Mr. Hastings's letter is prefixed. Its antiquity, for it is an extract from a poem affirmed to have been written upwards of four thousand years ago (not much more than a century from the deluge), the anxious jealousy with which all the sacred writings of the Bramins are concealed, and the great veneration in which it has been held for many successive ages, render it an object of the highest curiosity. It is the production of the same Bramin who compiled the four books of the Vêdes or Bêdes, though it appears, from some circumstances mentioned by the very able translator, that the fourth is of a later date than the three former; and very probably later than the present performance, since this is mentioned in it.

The letter from Mr. Hastings, with which this work is introduced, abounds with just observations, not only on the subject immediately before him, but on some others connected with it. He wishes, however, to prescribe bounds to criticism, and would exclude, in estimating the merit of this work, 'all rules drawn from the ancient or modern literature of Europe;' all references to such sentiments or manners, 'as are become the standards of propriety for opinion and action, in our own modes of life;' and appeals to our revealed tenets of religion and moral duty. They are not applicable, he thinks, to a state of society so different, with which we have been so long unconnected, and of an antiquity so far superior to the first steps towards civilization in Europe. If this be allowed,

Vol. LXI. Jan. 1786.

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we must look on this sacred relic with the veneration of an Hindo, and be afraid to put forward the unhallowed finger of criticism; for by what rules must we judge? The respectable writer of this letter should consider, that the work is offered to European readers; that it is European learning which has enabled them to form any judgment at all; and that it is not in their power, even if they were so inclined, to discard it. Mr. Hastings tacitly acknowledges this, for he proceeds to decide on it in the manner, and with the opinions of an European.

‘Many passages will be found obscure, many will seem redundant; others will be found cloathed with ornaments of fancy unsuited to our taste, and some elevated to a track of sublimity into which our habits of judgment will find it difficult to pursue them; but few which will shock either our religious faith or moral sentiments. Something too must be allowed to the subject itself, which is highly metaphysical, to the extreme difficulty of rendering abstract terms by others exactly corresponding with them in another language, to the arbitrary combination of ideas, in words expressing unsubstantial qualities, and more, to the errors of interpretation.’

Yet, with these deductions, which are somewhat more fully insisted on, Mr. Hastings hesitates not to pronounce

‘The Gēetā a performance of great originality; of a sublimity of conception, reasoning, and diction, almost unequalled; and a single exception, among all the known religions of mankind, of a theology accurately corresponding with that of the Christian dispensation, and most powerfully illustrating its fundamental doctrines.’

‘It will not be fair to try its relative worth by a comparison with the original text of the first standards of European composition; but let these be taken even in the most esteemed of their prose translations; and in that equal scale let their merits be weighed. I should not fear to place, in opposition to the best French versions of the most admired passages of the Iliad or Odyssey, or of the first or sixth books of our own Milton, highly as I venerate the latter, the English translation of the Mahābhārāt.’

Let us add a circumstance in vindication of Mr. Hastings, since he feels the imputation mentioned so keenly: his sensibility, in this respect, does great credit to his delicacy and humanity.

‘A mind rendered susceptible by the daily experience of unmerited reproach, may be excused if it anticipates even unreasonable or improbable objections. This must be my plea for any apparent futility in the following observation. I have seen an extract from a foreign work of great literary credit, in
 1 which

which my name is mentioned, with very undeserved applause, for an attempt to introduce the knowledge of Hindoo literature into the European world, by forcing or corrupting the religious consciences of the Pundits, or professors of their sacred doctrines. This reflection was produced by the publication of Mr. Halhed's translation of the Poottee or code of Hindoo laws; and is totally void of foundation. For myself I can declare truly, that if the acquisition could not have been obtained but by such means as have been supposed, I should never have sought it. It was contributed both cheerfully and gratuitously, by men of the most respectable characters for sanctity and learning in Bengal, who refused to accept more than the moderate daily subsistence of one rupee each during the term that they were employed in the compilation; nor will it much redound to my credit, when I add, that they have yet received no other reward for their meritorious labours. Very natural causes may be ascribed for their reluctance to communicate the mysteries of their learning to strangers, as those to whom they have been for some centuries in subjection, never enquired into them, but to turn their religion into derision, or deduce from them arguments to support the intolerant principles of their own. From our nation they have received a different treatment, and are no less eager to impart their knowledge than we are to receive it. I could say much more in proof of this fact, but that it might look too much like self-commendation.'

We have the evidence also of the translator, that the liberal treatment and personal attentions the learned Bramins have received, together with the mildness of our government, and tolerating principles of our faith, have established in their breasts a confidence in Englishmen, and removed almost every jealous prejudice from their minds. This cannot be the language of flattery, for the present work is an ample proof of its truth: we receive the news with more heartfelt pleasure than if another Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, were added to our possessions.

The translator dedicates his work to Mr. Hastings; and, with true eastern respect, begs to be permitted 'to lay the GĒtā at his feet.' His patron, therefore, seems to be considered as his sovereign, to whom only such language could be addressed. Mr. Hastings feels the impropriety, and acquits himself of the consciousness of it, till it was too late to change the expression.

The poem is in the form of a dialogue between Krēṣṇā, an incarnation of the Deity, and his pupil and favourite Arjōn, one of the five sons of Pāndō, who is said to have reigned five thousand years ago, about one thousand before the age of the original author, or more properly, perhaps, of the compiler. The dialogue is supposed to have passed just before

the famous battle of Kōḍrōḍkṣhētrā, for the dominion of the whole country now included under the name of India.

‘It seems as if the principal design of these dialogues was to unite all the prevailing modes of worship to those days; and, by setting up the doctrine of the unity of the Godhead, in opposition to idolatrous sacrifices, and the worship of images, to undermine the tenets inculcated by the Vēds; for although the author dared not make a direct attack either upon the prevailing prejudices of the people, or the divine authority of those ancient books; yet, by offering eternal happiness to such as worship Brāhm, the Almighty, whilst he declares the reward of such as follow other Gods shall be but a temporary enjoyment of an inferior heaven, for a period measured by the extent of their virtues, his design was to bring about the downfall of polytheism; or, at least, to induce men to believe God present in every image before which they bent, and the object of all their ceremonies and sacrifices.’

This, perhaps, is ‘considering the matter too deeply,’ and may put the learned reader in mind of the fancy of Warburton, relating to the secret which was revealed in the ancient mysteries, the important secret, that there was but one God, and that it was ridiculous and wicked to multiply divinities. We are told that the Brahmins, at this period, are Unitarians; yet, to support their own consequence, and impose on the ignorance of the people, they conform to all the absurd ceremonies of the Vēds.

If we may follow Mr. Hastings’ example, and, notwithstanding the exclusion, judge like Europeans from what we know, and what we have been accustomed to, we must pronounce this work such a strange mixture of sense and nonsense, bathos and sublimity, that we have little doubt of its being antique and genuine. The language of different parts is very various; but the first lecture contains a greater variety of it than any other, consequently we shall chuse it for a specimen of the manner. The beginning is chiefly introductory; so that we shall commence our extract from the point where the description becomes interesting.

‘The ancient chief, and brother of the grandfire of the Khōḍrōḍ, then, shouting with a voice like a roaring lion, blew his shell to raise the spirits of the Khōḍrōḍ chief; and instantly innumerable shells, and other warlike instruments, were struck up on all sides, so that the clangor was excessive. At this time Krēṣṇā and Arjōn were standing in a splendid chariot drawn by white horses. They also sounded their shells, which were of celestial form: the name of the one which was blown by Krēṣṇā was pāṇchājānyā, and that of Arjōn was called devā-dattā. Bhēcēm, of dreadful deeds, blew his capacious shell
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powndra, and Yōdhēṣṭhēr, the royal son of Kōontē, founded āhantā-vējāy. Nākōl and Sāhādēvā blew their shells also; the one called sōḡōihā, the other mānēpōṣhpākā. The prince of Kāṣē of the mighty bow, Sēkandē, Dhrēṣṭādhōmnā, Veerāta, Sātyākē of invincible arm, Droopad, and the sons of his royal daughter Krēṣṇā, with the son of Sōbbhadrā, and all the other chiefs and nobles, blew also their respective shells; so that their shrill sounding voices pierced the hearts of the Kōrōḡs, and re-echoed with a dreadful noise from heaven to earth.

In the mean time Arjōn, perceiving that the sons of Dhrēṣṭāṣṭrā stood ready to begin the fight, and that the weapons began to fly abroad, having taken up his bow, addressed Krēṣṇā in the following words:

Arjōn. I pray thee, Krēṣṇā, cause my chariot to be driven and placed between the two armies, that I may behold who are the men that stand ready, anxious to commence the bloody fight; and with whom it is that I am to fight in this ready field; and who they are that are here assembled to support the vindictive son of Dhrēṣṭāṣṭrā in the battle.

Krēṣṇā being thus addressed by Arjōn, drove the chariot, and, having caused it to halt in the midst of the space in front of the two armies, bade Arjōn cast his eyes towards the ranks of the Kōrōḡs, and behold where stood the aged Bhēṣṭmā and Drōn, with all the chief nobles of their party. He looked at both the armies, and beheld on either side, none but grandfathers, uncles, cousins, tutors, sons, and brothers, near relations, or bosom friends; and when he had gazed for a while, and beheld such friends as these prepared for the fight, he was seized with extreme pity and compunction, and uttered his sorrow in the following words:

Arjōn. Having beheld, O Krēṣṇā! my kindred thus standing anxious for the fight, my members fail me, my countenance withereth, the hair standeth an end upon my body, and all my frame trembleth with horror! even gāndēv my bow escapeth from my hand, and my skin is parched and dried up. I am not able to stand; for my understanding, as it were, turneth round, and I behold inauspicious omens on all sides. When I shall have destroyed my kindred, shall I longer look for happiness? I wish not for victory, Krēṣṇā; I want not dominion; I want not pleasure; for what is dominion, and the enjoyments of life, or even life itself, when those for whom dominion, pleasure, and enjoyment, were to be coveted, have abandoned life and fortune, and stand here in the field ready for the battle? Tutors, sons and fathers, grandfathers and grandsons, uncles and nephews, cousins, kindred, and friends! although they would kill me, I wish not to fight them; no not even for the dominion of the three regions of the universe, much less for this little earth! Having killed the sons of Dhrēṣṭāṣṭrā, what pleasure, O Krēṣṇā, can we enjoy? Should

we destroy them, tyrants as they are, sin would take refuge with us. It therefore behoveth us not to kill such near relations as these. How, O Krēṣṇā, can we be happy hereafter, when we have been the murderers of our race? What if they, whose minds are depraved by the lust of power, see no sin in the extirpation of their race, no crime in the murder of their friends, is that a reason why we should not resolve to turn away from such a crime, we who abhor the sin of extirpating the kindred of our blood? In the destruction of a family, the ancient virtue of the family is lost. Upon the loss of virtue, vice and impiety overwhelm the whole of a race. From the influence of impiety the females of a family grow vicious; and from women that are become vicious are born the spurious brood called Vārnā-sāṅkāṛ. The Sāṅkāṛ provideth hell both for those which are slain and those which survive; and their forefathers, being deprived of the ceremonies of cakes and water offered to their manes, sink into the infernal regions. By the crimes of those who have murdered their own relations, sore cause of contamination and birth of Vārnā-sāṅkāṛs, the family virtue, and the virtue of a whole tribe is for ever done away; and we have been told, O Krēṣṇā, that the habitation of those mortals whose generation hath lost its virtue, shall be in hell. Woe is me! what a great crime are we prepared to commit! Alas! that for the lust of the enjoyments of dominion we stand here ready to murder the kindred of our own blood! I would rather patiently suffer that the sons of Dhrēṣṭā-āśhtrā, with their weapons in their hands, should come upon me, and, unopposed, kill me unguarded in the field.'

The second Lecture is on the Nature of the Soul, and on Speculative Doctrines: this is very curious.—The third is more intricate, on the Distinction and comparative Merit of those who exercise their Reason in Contemplation, and those who are employed in the Exercise of religious Duties.—The fourth is on the forsaking of Works: in this and the preceding Lecture, the doctrine of the metempsychosis is very distinctly delivered.—The fifth, on the forsaking the *fruits* of Works, introduces some limits to the former doctrines, which might be considered as recommending contemplation and inactivity farther than the good of society will require; but after all, this religion inculcates too much contemplation.—The sixth is on the Exercise of the Soul.—The seventh on the Principles of Nature and the Vital Spirit.—The eighth contains a very sublime Description of the Almighty, and an Account of his different Emanations or Functions, according to the System of the Bramins.—The ninth is on the Chief of Secrets, and the Prince of Science. It contains an account of the beginning and end of the world, and circumstances relating to religious ceremonies.—The tenth is on the Diversity of the Divine

Divine Nature, and consists of much sublime imagery.—The eleventh is on the Display of the Divine Nature in the Form of the Universe.—The twelfth on the Duty of serving the Deity, in his visible and invisible Forms. As this Lecture is short, and contains much of the substance of other parts of the work, we shall transcribe it.

‘ Those who having placed their minds in me, serve me with constant zeal, and are endued with steady faith, are esteemed the best devoted. They too who, delighting in the welfare of all nature, serve me in my incorruptible, ineffable, and invisible form; omnipresent, incomprehensible, standing on high, fixed and immoveable, with subdued passions and understandings, the same in all things, shall also come unto me. Those whose minds are attached to my invisible nature have the greater labour to encounter; because an invisible path is difficult to be found by corporeal beings. They also who, preferring me, leave all works for me, and, free from the worship of all others, contemplate and serve me alone, I presently raise them up from the ocean of this region of mortality, whose minds are thus attached to me. Place then thy heart on me, and penetrate me with thy understanding, and thou shalt, without doubt, hereafter enter unto me. But if thou shouldst be unable, at once, steadfastly to fix thy mind on me, endeavour to find me by means of constant practice. If after practice thou art still unable, follow me in my works supreme; for by performing works for me, thou shalt attain perfection. But shouldst thou find thyself unequal to this task, put thy trust in me alone, be of humble spirit, and forsake the fruit of every action. Knowledge is better than practice, meditation is distinguished from knowledge, forsaking the fruit of action from meditation, for happiness hereafter is derived from such forsaking.

‘ He my servant is dear unto me, who is free from enmity, the friend of all nature, merciful, exempt from pride and selfishness, the same in pain and pleasure, patient of wrongs contented, constantly devout, of subdued passions, and firm resolves, and whose mind and understanding are fixed on me alone. He also is my beloved of whom mankind are not afraid, and who of mankind is not afraid; and who is free from the influence of joy, impatience, and the dread of harm. He my servant is dear unto me who is unexpecting, just, and pure, impartial, free from distraction of mind, and who hath forsaken every enterprize. He also is worthy of my love, who neither rejoiceth nor findeth fault; who neither lamenteth nor covereth, and, being my servant, hath forsaken both good and evil fortune. He also is my beloved servant, who is the same in friendship and in hatred, in honour and in dishonour, in cold and in heat, in pain and pleasure; who is unsolicitous about the event of things; to whom praise and blame are as one; who is of little speech, and pleased with whatever cometh to

pass; who owneth no particular home, and who is of a steady mind. They who seek this amṛētā of religion even as I have said, and serve me faithfully before all others, are, moreover, my dearest friends.'

The three next Lectures contain an explanation of Eastern terms, of which we can give no analysis.—The sixteenth is on good and evil destinies;—the seventeenth on Faith divided into three Species;—and the last, on forsaking the Fruits of Action for obtaining eternal Salvation.

We have given the most comprehensive account in our power of this very curious work; but, while we own that it must be necessarily inadequate, we hope it will excite the curiosity of our readers to peruse a work, supposed to be written near eight hundred years before the time of Moses.

A Dissertation on Elective Attractions. By Torbern Bergmann. Translated from the Latin. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Murray.

PERHAPS we may, without incurring the charge of rashness or precipitation, trace the rapid progress of chemistry from the period in which tables of elective attractions were first formed. From the time of Geoffroy, our labours have been more pointed and accurate, our conclusions more clear and decisive, and chemical knowledge, in general, more improved than in the long series of ages which preceded. Some of these additions, to our knowledge, may undoubtedly be attributed to the spirited investigations of an enlightened age, to the liberal mode in which enquiries are now carried on, and to the number of labourers in the field of science; but it will be at once obvious that to ascertain what has been done, and where our experience is deficient, is the first method of directing enquiries to the best purpose, and of preventing others from wasting their time on what is already known. M. Geoffroy, therefore, who published the first Table of Affinities in 1718, has gained by it the highest reputation, though the table itself was short, imperfect, and indecisive. It was, however, the first attempt, and the same which he acquired has been in a great degree supported by his other works. In the age of Geoffroy, soon after his first publication, an obscure chemist in Germany, M. Grosse, improved and added to his list. He read, he studied, and made experiments in silence and obscurity: at his window he delighted to puzzle the passers; but never would explain any thing till he had completely astonished them. This table was privately copied, and never published till 1748. We have given these particulars to rescue his name from oblivion, and to inform the world of the peculiarities of its instructor. He introduced a geometrical method of arguing;

ing; for instance, nitrated mercury, sea-salt, and vitriol, being given, what will be the result of distilling them together? This method exercised his pupils in the use of his table, but has introduced too much reasoning in a science which chiefly rests on experiment. Soon after this time, a slight attempt in the same way was published in the early editions of Quincy's Dispensatory.

In the year 1750, Mr. Gellert, a Saxon chemist, published a table with considerable additions; but he entirely changed the order of the substances; for that which had the *least* relation to the body at the head, stood in the first rank. His work was translated into French, in 1758; and Mr. Spielman adopted his table, in his Institutes of Chemistry, published in 1763. There are many errors in it, particularly respecting the effect of heat on the earthy bodies. It contained twenty-eight columns.

In 1736, M. Rüdiger published, at Leipzig, a Table of Affinities, in fifteen columns; to which were added, ten columns of substances which would not unite without preparation. This was a very useful addition: the explanations are in German; but this work is not valuable, on account of the irregularity of the order, and the few substances inserted in each column.

Another Table was published by M. Limbourg, in 1758. It is very full; but erroneous and imperfect. In 1763, that part of the famous Encyclopædia which relates to chemistry appeared, and in it a new Table, which has never been attributed to any author. It is chiefly composed from those of Geoffroy, and the almost forgotten Grosse, and is full of imperfections as well as contradictions. The new edition now publishing was, therefore, much wanted. Soon after this time, for our history has led us so far, that we must hasten to a conclusion, Dr. Black, in his class, gave an improvement of Geoffroy. Many new columns were added, and different substances subjoined to the old ones, with more discriminating exactness. It was, at that period, the most perfect table that had appeared. In 1769, M. Machy read, at the Royal Academy, an explanation of his new table, which possesses great merit: and, in 1775, the Dissertation of Bergmann, which has occasioned this detail, was published in the new volume of the Upsal Transactions.—Let us finish our history, in the words of the very intelligent translator.

‘ Since the above, besides many alterations which totally change the disposition of it, not less than nine new columns have been added, which, if all the rectangles were filled up, make $9 \times 50 = 450$ new rectangles. I have no doubt but that
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an equal or a greater number of additions will hereafter be made in an equal number of years. Even since the publication of the third volume of the *Opuscula*, in 1783, two, or perhaps three substances have been discovered which will claim a place on the Table of Elective Attractions; these are what Mr. Scheele considers as the acid inherent in tungstein, or lapis ponderosus, the metal which Messrs. Luyart obtained from tungstein; for wolfram only differs from it in being combined with iron and manganese, and the acid of the silk-worm, and some other insects, described by M. Chauffier, in the *Dijon Memoires* for 1783.¹

We have investigated this history with some attention, because we think it of great consequence. Since the first *Essay* of M. Geoffroy, though many have been the attempts to improve his Table, the success has not been proportional. Besides, the number of candidates who have contended with him for fame, has not been equal to those authors who have transcribed his arrangement, with little addition. Each of these have, till within these ten or fifteen years, joined in his praises. About that time so many exceptions seemed to occur to every attempt of this kind, that the best chemists began to relax in their efforts, despairing of bringing it to perfection. In fact, they employed substances as simple bodies, which were really compounds; and they varied their experiments without being aware of, or allowing for, the variety. Confusion consequently succeeded to order, and each general rule was clogged with exceptions so numerous, that it lost its use. The discovery of the aerial acid began to lead chemists into a clearer light; and, by following this clue, Bergmann, in the work before us, has elucidated many difficulties, and reconciled many apparent contradictions.

Excess of heat is one cause of the seeming exceptions; and irregularities arise, as we have hinted, from double attraction. We shall insert a short specimen of our author's reasoning on this subject.

‘Chemists, in determining the single elective attractions, are often deceived by double attractions. The phosphoric acid, as I shall hereafter shew, attracts lime more powerfully than fixed alkali; yet the contrary is asserted, since aerated alkali, by means of a double affinity, precipitates phosphorated lime. Even caustic fixed alkali, which seems a stronger proof, causes a precipitation: nevertheless, if the superior attraction is deduced from this alone, the conclusion will be erroneous; for the alkali only takes away the excess of acid which is requisite for solution, and hence the phosphorated lime falls to the bottom. The difference between the action of alkalis and absorbent earths, when saturated with aerial acid, and when destitute

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of it, has been explained in my essay on that acid, and may, therefore, be omitted here. It may now, in general, be observed, that alkaline and earthy substances are to be considered as double, and by no means as simple salts, except in their caustic state, and then I call them pure.

'The precipitation of metals, dissolved in acids, by other metals, is never the effect of single attraction; for during the solution, a quantity of phlogiston is extricated, as I have clearly, I hope, shewn elsewhere. Since, therefore, metallic solutions are of such a nature, that they cannot restore what they hold dissolved to its metallic splendour without the accession of a new portion of phlogiston, it is self-evident, as well as conformable to experiment, that this cannot be effected by the addition of calces. If, therefore, ochre be put into a solution of vitriol of copper, no copper will be precipitated; but iron added to the solution is soon observed to be covered with a cupreous pellicle; for it yields part of its phlogiston, which is necessary to the reduction of the copper, and by this means becomes itself soluble without the emission of any inflammable air. Silver dissolved in the nitrous acid, is in like manner calcined; as appears from the red vapour, phlogistic smell, and various other evident signs, and therefore cannot be precipitated by the calx, though it may by regulus of copper. The same observation is applicable to gold and the other metals; for in whatever way they be separated, provided they can acquire no phlogiston, they appear calcined, and really are so: the only difference consists in this, that they are unequally dephlogisticated, and that the noble metals can recover their loss by fusion alone in ignited vessels, whereas the ignoble ones require an addition of phlogiston.'

Exceptions which have been made, are also sometimes owing to a successive change of substances; as, for instance, the nitrous acid is phlogisticated by adding marine acid, and then adheres so loosely to an alkali as to be dislodged by any acid. Nitre, kept some time ignited, in the same way may be separated even by vinegar; but the order in which a compound body is arranged, ought not to form an exception to the affinity of the body, when simple. When a substance separated is soluble in the menstruum, or when the solution is capable of dissolving the disunited body, we also see an apparent, instead of a real irregularity. The same occurs when the substance, which we expect to see separate, is capable of uniting to the new compound, or when a determinate excess of any of the ingredients is required to form the body, in a state fit for separation; as of an acid in crude tartar, and of an alkali in borax. All these circumstances have perplexed the practical chemists; and Bergmann's explanations, which cannot be expressed in shorter language than his own, are curious and instructive.

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He then examines each column in his Table, and explains, in general, the nature of the substance at the head, and the experiments on which the subsequent order is founded. He tells us, also, where they are arranged from analogy, and when from conjecture: these difficulties must be removed by future experiments. Of a work so miscellaneous, we can give no regular analysis; and shall extract only a short passage, which contains information not generally known, viz. on the colouring matter of Prussian blue.

‘I have long conjectured, not without reason, that the tinging matter in Prussian blue is of an acid nature, as it forms compounds of an intermediate kind with alkaline salts, as well as with earths and metals. Mr. Scheele has lately taught us how to separate the acid in a pure state. Phlogisticated alkali, as it is commonly called, is a triple salt; containing the tinging acid, saturated partly with iron, and partly with alkali. This salt, boiled in a retort with weak vitriolic acid, emits the tinging acid in an inflammable aerial form, which may be absorbed by water placed in the receiver. And as at the same time, some vitriolic acid passes into the receiver, the liquor should be again distilled with a little chalk, till one-fourth shall have passed over; which is a solution of the present acid in water. The following process answers the same end with less trouble: let sixteen parts of Prussian blue be boiled in a concurbit, with eight of mercury, calcined by means of nitrous acid, and forty-eight of water, for a few minutes, with constant agitation. The mixture becomes of a cineritious yellow; it should be put on the filter, and the residuum elixated with boiling water. To the filtered liquor, let twelve parts of pure iron filings be added, and three of concentrated vitriolic acid. After a shaking of some minutes, the whole mass is turned black by the reduced mercury. After the subsidence of the powder, the clear liquor is to be decanted into a retort, and one-fourth abstracted.’

A commentary on a table of elective attractions must contain an abstract of the whole science; and the abstract before us is not only full and comprehensive, but clear and satisfactory. New discoveries must, however, have affected many parts of the work; and some mistakes, the errors of humanity, may be occasionally observed. Many of these are corrected by the translator, who, besides adding some valuable notes, has executed his task with great skill and judgment. He appears to be of opinion, that the late discoveries relative to the nature of water, by Mr. Cavendish and Mr. Watt, are fully established; but we still entertain some doubts. If they are once exactly ascertained, we agree with him in thinking that they will have an extensive influence over every branch of chemical know-

knowledge. Perhaps Mr. Cavendish's continued enquiries, which we expect every moment, may render these subjects more clear. We shall conclude our extracts with a few remarks from the annotator.

‘ But whence arises the aerial acid that appears in those phlogistic processes in which animals are concerned? We find it not only in the air that has been respired by animals provided with lungs, but Mr. Scheele detected it in air in which he had kept insects, and Mr. Achard in common and vital air that had been injected into the cellular tissue of animals. If it does not proceed from any change of vital air, what remains but that it must be thrown off in substance? I would, therefore, propose this as a proper subject of experiment, not because I think it calculated to decide the chemical question concerning the constitution of the aerial acid, but because it is a curious physiological problem. I know but one fact that has any immediate connection with the solution of this problem, and that is contained in Mr. Achard's paper on artificial emphysemas. He always found a large portion of aerial acid in inflammable air that had been forced into the cellular tissue of animals. If it was not contained beforehand in the inflammable air, and little or no common air was introduced along with it, which I think altogether unlikely, the result seems very much to favour the opinion that supposes aerial acid to be an animal emanation.

‘ I know not whether I shall escape censure for dwelling so long, both here and before, on the question concerning the aerial acid; but I presume, with some confidence, that no one, who is capable of perceiving its extensive influence on the theory of so many chemical operations, will blame me with much severity.’

We once hazarded a conjecture, that the aerial acid might be found to be some very common substance in disguise; and, though we would speak with much diffidence, and hazard a conjecture only, yet there is great reason to suppose, that this kind of air is often a phlogisticated acetous acid. It is pretty certainly known, that it is the acid of ants, which in many respects resembles the acetous acid; and, in the experiments just quoted, it may be derived from the acid of fat, which, in Mr. Crell's experiments, produced salts in the same order, and nearly with the same properties as vinegar. It may appear contradictory to derive an acid so generally found in fossil substances, from vegetables; but it must be considered, that the aerial acid is often contained in large quantities in the food of vegetables, water, and mould; and that the acetous acid is not formed, but only evolved by the process of fermentation. Many similar instances occur in chemistry. There are many other arguments which might be produced, if it were proper:

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we omit them, that we may not seem to raise a conjecture to the rank of a theory. Much injury has been done to science in this way: opinions are often useful to suggest experiments; but they should never supersede them, or influence our conclusions.

The Tables of simple and double Elective Attraction, both in chemical characters and words, are subjoined: the latter are highly useful, for Bergmann's characters are not very simple or clear. Yet, as they are now become familiar, more confusion would be introduced by improving than by retaining them.

Filices Britannicæ; an History of the British proper Ferns. By James Bolton. 4to. 13s. in Boards; 1l. 7s. coloured. White.

THIS is the first part of an useful and correct description of the British ferns, in a moderate compass, and at no great expence.

— It is here attempted to bring together and illustrate the British proper ferns; no attempt of the kind having ever before appeared in our own, or any other language. The greatest part of them have indeed been figured and described, but many of those figures are too inaccurate to give a clear and distinct idea of the plant, and being scattered through the volumes of many authors, will subject to a very great expence, those who are desirous to inform themselves of a tribe of plants so singular and beautiful as the British proper ferns must be allowed to be.

It is the intention of the author in this undertaking, to give a clear and distinct idea of every species in its various stages of growth, and under the various accidents it is liable to, as far as is necessary for enabling the student to discriminate each with ease and certainty; to exhibit them at one view, and at a small expence.

Mr. Bolton has described and engraven specimens of the different British species of ophioglossum, osmunda, acrostichum, polipodium, asplenium, pteris, adiantum, trichomanes; and proposes, in a subsequent work, to describe the equisetum, pilularia, and isoetis; all the genera of the British Flora. His accounts are, in general, satisfactory; and the plates, though void of elegance, are clear and accurate. They do not attract the eye by their beauty, but they instruct the mind by their exactness.

Mr. Bolton has made no alteration in the genera; and, instead of adding to the species, has degraded many of these, by placing them among the varieties. He seems to have attended very carefully to this class of plants; and his observations are frequently new, and generally just. The known varieties

rieties are more clearly described, and some of the most remarkable ones are delineated.

The *adiantum trapeziforme* of Hudson, Flor. Ang. 460, is supposed, with great reason, to be only a variety of the *asplenium marinum*. The *asplenium trichomanes-ramosum* of Linnæus, Sp. pl. 1541, is, in our author's opinion, a variety of the *asplenium viride*, growing luxuriantly in moist situations. Mr. Hudson, we perceive, thinks it a variety of the *asplenium trichomanes*, since he has inserted the synonyms of Linnæus under this species.

The *asplenium lanceolatum* of Hudson is supposed to be a variety of *asplenium adiantum nigrum*, and our author has arranged it in this manner. It is indeed very similar to the *as. adiantum nigrum*; but we have much reason to suspect that our author has actually delineated a variety of the *as. adiantum-nigrum*, instead of the *as. lanceolatum*, since he has not preserved the specific difference of the *lanceolatum*, which we have often seen. As he found it so nearly alike the former, and not very different from the latter, he has perhaps occasioned some confusion.

It is with more reason that he subjoins the following remark to the *polypodium vulgare*.

‘The *polypodium cambricum* is now known to be a variety of this plant. The general shape of its leaves oval: lobes confluent, and decurrent at the base, irregularly gashed on the edges, the segments long, narrow, crowded, serrated or crenated on the edges, the whole leaf thin, smooth, semi-transparent, of a pale green and very elegant. This variety produces no seed vessels.

‘There is another remarkable variety in which the lobes are proliferous, having other lobes growing from their sides. This variety was discovered in fructification, in a wood near Bingley, by Mr. W. Alexander, of Halifax, in August 1782.’

We shall insert also the following observation, to recommend it to the attention of observers.

‘*Polypodium lonchitis* very greatly resembles the *polypodium aculeatum* in some of its states, particularly that variety of it which Hudson calls *polypodium lobatum*. These two plants in figure, colour, substance, manner of growth, and general habit, bear a resemblance too striking to be disregarded,

‘The *polypodium aculeatum* and *lobatum* are found growing on moist rocks and shady places. *Polypodium lonchitis*, on the cold mountains of North Wales. Is it possible that *polypodium lonchitis* should be a starved variety of *polypodium aculeatum*?’

Again, for the same reason,

‘I suspect the *polypodium fragrans* of Mr. Hudson to be a variety of this plant (*polypodium thelypteris*) where the seeds,

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accidentally taking root on rocks, produce small plants having the parts crowded. Linnæus's description of the polypodium fragrans, agrees with polypodium thelypteris in every thing but magnitude. If polypodium fragrans is a real species, I shall be thankful to any one who will communicate a fair specimen, or give hints of information concerning it.'

The polypodium lobatum of Hudson is, in our author's opinion, a young plant of the p. aculeatum; the polypodium rheticum, a tender one of the p. fragile; and the trichomanes pyxidiferum, a luxuriant variety of the t. tunbrigense. We shall select the last remark.

'I suspect the trichomanes pyxidiferum of Bell Bank to be a luxuriant variety of this plant; their figure, texture, colour, and whole habit are the same, only differing in magnitude. In this opinion I am confirmed by observation; for in the year 1784, I found the trichomanes tunbrigense growing in great plenty on the rocks under Dolbadon castle, near the lake of Llanberris; in cavities where the rock was moist, and overshadowed with other plants, so as to exclude the sun, I found specimens so far approaching to the trichomanes pyxidiferum, as to form a connecting link between it and the trichomanes tunbrigense, partaking equally of the one and of the other. One of these specimens I have exactly figured.'

Our author's observations on the difficulty of distinguishing the genera of ferns, in particular periods of their fructification, are very just; but the inconvenience which has been frequently felt is, we fear, without a remedy. We have little to object to Mr. Bolton's conduct in any respect, except his translations of the terms descriptive of the leaves. Now that we have a fixed English botanical language, it should be strictly adhered to; for, as we have often remarked, it is better to be consistent in our language, though we should sometimes be less accurate. In this instance also, the language of the Litchfield translators is, we think, preferable.

Jacobi Dickson Fasciculus Plantarum Cryptogamicarum Britanniae.

4to. 4s. sewed. Nicol.

THIS work, though small, is almost wholly new. The author professes to enumerate those plants only, which are not described by Curtis, Hudson, or Lightfoot; except in one or two instances, where, from inspecting the Collections of Linnæus and Dillenius, he has been able to detect some errors. It is indeed both honourable and advantageous to this kingdom and its naturalists, that we have inherited the learned riches of the Swedish botanist. The plates represent only those plants, of which there are no representations in sir Joseph Banks's

Banks's library. They are very faithfully executed; but some little errors in the references create, at times, a slight confusion.

The first set of these 'clandestine marriages' contains the mosses. The first genus, enriched with new species, is the *phascum*. To it are added one under the title of '*serratum*,' somewhat resembling the *p. acaulon* of Hudson, Fl. Angl. 466, another styled *alternifolium*, and the third *axillare*. To the genus *splachnum* are added two species from the method. *muscorum*, Linn. filii, viz. *mnioides* & *sphæricum*: to the *mnium* one, the '*osmundaceum*.' The *bryum viridulum* is said to be very different from the *b. capillaceum breve*, &c. of Dillenius, and *muscus capillaceus*, &c. of Vaillant, which are placed as synonyms under this species by Linn. Sp. Pl. 1584. The *b. viridulum* is really the Swedish species, as appears from Linnæus' Hortus Siccus; but messrs. Hudson, Curtis, and Lightfoot, have been misled by the synonyms, and confounded it with the following species, viz. the *b. virens*, to which Dillenius and Vaillant's plant is to be referred. Another species of *bryum*, the '*ventricosum*,' on comparing the herbaries of Dillenius and Linnæus, is very different from the *mnium triquetrum*, with which it has been confounded. In the whole, Mr. Dickson has described four new species of this genus. To the genus *hypnum*, are added the *stellatum*, *pennatum*, *flamineum*, and *albicans*. To the *jungermannia*, the *j. sphagni*, *angulosa*, and *pulcherrima*: the last is taken from the methodus of the younger Linnæus.

In the order of flags, a different description of the genus *targionia* is added, to include a new species together with the *t. hypophylla* of Hudson; and another species of *riccia* is described from the Flora Danica. Eighteen new species of lichen are also described. The *l. canescens* is different from the *l. palescens* of Linnæus, and the same with the *lichenoides crustosum*, &c. of Dillenius, which has generally been subjoined to the latter species. Of the *tremella*, three new species appear: the *t. sabinae*, found also on the juniper, is said to differ from the description of the *t. juniperina* of Linnæus, in the Flora Laponica.

Among the mushrooms we find ten species of *agaricus*, mostly new; of the *boletus*, five; one of which, the *b. lacrymans*, is the cause of what is called the dry-rot. This plant was known to Hudson, but described by him as a species of *agaricus*, viz. *a. pectinatus*. Of the *hydnum*, there are only two additional species; of the *helvella*, five; but neither afford any thing which particularly deserves to be no-

ticed. The genera of peziza and clavaria, are each enriched with two species.

Mr. Dickson has formed a new genus, or rather a miscellaneous class of bodies, not easily referable to the other genera. He has called it sphæria, a name frequently applied to different species of the fungus. Its fructification is spherical, and full of powder. It contains nine species, chiefly taken from Wiegél: one only, the *l. brassica*, is in Murray's edition of Linnæus's System of Vegetables, under the title of *lycoperdon minimum*. Of the *lycoperdon*, there are five new species; and of the *mucor*, one.

We have thus given a cursory view of the novelties in this Fasciculus, which are so many, that we reflect, with pleasure, on the intimation given by the author, that he means to offer us more. The descriptions are clear, concise, and discriminated, the references exact; but, as the objects are frequently quite new, and seldom much known, they cannot be numerous. In this retired recess, a great harvest is yet to be reaped; and we are pleased to see labourers so diligent and able in the task.

Heron's Letters of Literature. Concluded, from Vol. ix. p. 413.)

WE again take up the work of this enterprising author, who in various shapes engages the attention of the public with hopes, perhaps in vain, to fix it. We had just reached the twenty-eighth Letter, and shall proceed in order.

De Retz, he tells us, is weak and superficial; his reputation false, and his gravity the appearance of wisdom. This differs from common opinion; but perhaps is not very distant from the truth. Extremes are always suspicious; and the popular current has carried the name of De Retz down the stream with a rapidity which he did not deserve.

Mr. Heron next examines the antiquity of farces, and traces them to the first originals of the drama. In this there are some just remarks, mixed with mistakes so numerous, that we are led to think, that 'with all the superficiality of French criticism,' our author has taken from copies. Pantomime, in his opinion, is equally ancient; but he should have observed, that it was pantomime made intelligible by the help of an interpreter. If the opinion of the ancients is to be credited, this assistance was not at that time so necessary as it is at present, since we are told of a speech which was acted, and understood as easily as when spoken. If we excel in pantomime,

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we fail in dramatic compositions, if our author's dictates are oracular.

'Indèed pântomime is now the best entertainment we find in our theatres. It is quite astonishing to remark how much our stage hath declined within this half dozen years, since the retreat of Garrick. It is overwhelmed with floods of Irish nonsense, and stuff more stupid than stupidity, where not one glimmer of sense or wit appears. Had those Irishmen, female scribblers, &c. offered their trash to a Bartholomew-fair audience a few years ago, they would have been hissed to scorn. Our poor audiences sit with Dutch phlegm, and take what God sends. English good-nature, or *bon homie*, if you please, puts us upon a level with the most stupid and barbarous of nations. What the judgement of our audiences condemns, their good-nature with a vengeance! comes in and reprieves at the very gallows. However it is some consolation to know that our stage cannot possibly be worse than it is, so it must mend of course.'

The next Letter is on Gravina's work *Della Region Poetica*. It is intended to lessen the credit of the author, and it does not add to that of the critic. The following, though well expressed, is not new.

'Many of his observations upon Homer are fine; such as; his being the greatest poet, because his works all bear the very stamp of nature; none of his characters being perfect; the virtuous being painted as capable of vice, and the vicious as guilty of virtue. Perfect characters form, indeed, a sure mark of a middling writer; who cannot copy nature, but only a feeble idea of perfection in his own breast. They are always insipid; witness Eneas, the most insipid character ever drawn; for the vices of Eneas, his dereliction of Dido, &c. are not described as imperfections of character; but are indeed mere inconsistencies.'

In the passage which follows, we can trace his steps; where we have often found them, and shall take an opportunity of detecting him.

The following Letter is on Historical Truth. We have had occasion to remark how many various forms it puts on, while it cannot be said to have altered its nature; but our author positively asserts, that 'there is no such thing as truth of fact; or historical truth, known to man.' It is something to assert with confidence; it is of more consequence to demonstrate. Our author explains his opinion; and then we find him exact in his judgment.

The thirty-second Letter contains a comparison between the form of the ancient stage and the modern one; with some comparative observations on the modern and ancient dramas. A few remarks may deserve a different character from the rest;

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for, in general, it may be truly pronounced a superficial compilation; and, wonderful to relate! chiefly from Latin authors. We have much reason to believe, that our author honours the sound of Greek only; though, in the following Letter, he again attacks the Latin poets. He compares Virgil, however, not with Homer, but with Tasso.

In the thirty-fourth Letter he endeavours to prove, that the English has 'vast defects' in sound; but our author's ear, in many instances, is not very correct. His observations, and his plan to improve the sound of our language, are trifling and absurd in the highest degree. A specimen of the reformed English, of the one hundred and fifty-ninth Number of the Spectator, will enable the reader to judge for himself.

'When I was at Grand Cairo, I picked up several orientala manuscrita, quica I have still by me. Among others, I met with one entitulen, Thea Visiona of Mirza, quica I have reddové with great pleasuré. I intend to givé ito to the publico, when I have no other entertainmento fo them; ando shall begin with the first vision, quico I have tranlaten wordo fo wordo az followeth.'

The observations on the Greek characters, and the remarks of reference, are of little consequence; and we may exclaim with Mr. Heron, 'common sense! common sense! what an uncommon thing art thou!' Let us for once tell this gentleman, that to differ, is not always to be right; and to appear decisive, will not *always* convince.

The next Letter is on 'the Grave,' a poem by Mr. Blair, of considerable merit; but not unknown, though not generally admired. It is indeed unequal, and the subject is too gloomy to become familiar.

In the following Letter, our author thinks a poet may be too good an antiquarian; for customs may have existed that will add to the force of the description, though they have never been mentioned. This is the very essence of trifling.

The thirty-seventh Letter contains some modern Latin poetry, which the author selects as deserving praise. We are not more fond of the modern attempts than Mr. Heron; these are not of the best kind; but he is the worst of translators. Let the reader judge from his attempt to translate an ode of Cassimir's 'syllable for syllable.' We shall select only the first stanzas.

'*Ad suam Testudinem.*

'Sonori buxi filia futilis,
Pendebris alta, barbite, populo;
Dum ridet aer, et supinas
Solicitat levis aura frondes.'

'To his Harp.'

'Sonorous daughter of the pliant-boxen stem,
On the high poplar, O my harp, thou shalt depend;
While laughs the sky, and the gale
Softly revives the listless leaves.'

The rest contains some mistakes, not excusable in a school-boy. The translation of Mr. Gray's famous Alcaic Ode, is neither more correct nor more elegant.

Letter thirty-eighth is on Shakspeare again. We shall soon have enough of this subject, but shall select our author's concluding remark.

'Let us not dismiss the book without due thanks to Mr. Steevens; to whom the readers of Shakspeare are as much obliged as those of Hudibras to Dr. Grey. Both of them are completely versed in

"All such reading as was never read."

Both are fellow-labourers in the congenial mines of dulness; where no man of taste or science ever dirtied himself. Both have explained their author, without being capable of understanding him.'

Letter thirty-ninth endeavours to shew, with little success, that luxury is neither a sign of a decaying state, nor the cause of its decay. Yet there are some acute observations in it, which might be better employed than in supporting paradoxes. Our author then starts from his subject, to speak of the uncertainty of determining the age of an author from style, and thinks that it is easy to 'command an hundred different styles.' If this be the talent which he affects, we do not wonder at the various names with which he has appeared in the world of letters; but it is not the talent which he possesses.

Mr. Heron next enquires into the improvements of science since the time of Bacon; and details, at some length, the extensive analysis of knowledge delivered by this penetrating author. In examining the improvements, we find much illiberality in the language, and many defects in our author's information. Indeed we are too much disgusted with this letter to enlarge on it. He praises and censures Gibbon with some justice; and at last observes,

'Let him revise his History, and it will stand among the very first in the world. Above all things let him be less a geographer, and more a chronologer. Geography and chronology have well been called the two eyes of history; but he has extinguished the latter, as hoping the other would shine more brightly.'

In his Remarks on the Epistolary Style, his enumeration of the distinguished authors is not correct. There are other sets

of letters, and to some of these he is more obliged than he chuses to acknowledge.

The forty-first Letter is on Imitation. Mr. Heron speaks boldly, and we cannot avoid respecting a man who does so, when he is not illiberal; he openly declares, that to encourage imitation is to check genius. We believe it, and agree with him in many of his remarks in this Letter; but he debases the subject and himself, by language which disgraces a gentleman. He has injured the effects of the following Letter also, by an improper display of political opinions, and the virulence of his censure; yet, on the whole, we think it the most able and animated one in the present volume. It begins with vindicating Hume from the censures of Gray.

‘I grant you that Mr. Gray’s censure of David Hume is the most exceptionable part of his letters; but it is very vindicable, being written in confidence to a friend; and with no intention that the public should see it. His trite application of the remark, that muddy rivers seem deep, shews that it was written in an unlucky moment, when thought is absent; and perhaps in the flush of evening wine: which last is indeed the only apology that can be made for the remainder of the stricture. No writer can be more clear and manly than Hume; I mean as to his sense; nay, what is wonderful, his style is always easily intelligible, though full of solecisms and every species of barbarity: his gaiety is always that of an innocent and truly wise man. His History of England, nay his Essays, display talents very far superior to any that Gray hath ever shewn. Mr. Hume might have ruled a state: Gray’s utmost views would only have ruled a college. Hume’s reputation in France was only the echo of his fame in England. Mr. Gray shewed himself less than a child when he called Hume one. Such mad calumnies recoil upon their author’s judgment, and crush it to nothing. Yet all this censure lights upon the editor; for Gray would have called upon mountains to cover his shame, if he had seen his name publicly branded with throwing dirt from Billingsgate upon a cotemporary lord of fame, because his envy saw that he was richer dress, and of far higher rank than himself.’

The remarks on Hume’s History, and the tendency of his other works, are in general just; and the conclusion is finished with admirable force and energy.

‘Besides, my friend, the consolations of human life are by no means too numerous. Religion is one of the chief of these consolations to thousands of people; and among these to many possess of qualities superior to genius, knowledge, or philosophy; qualities that constitute the good, the first order of society. Shall I, with rash and sacrilegious hand, burst open the temple of their happiness, and steal away the palladium of their peace? Forbid it humanity! forbid it even philosophy! The
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philosophy that is not benevolent is false and destructive. It is impossible for man to know the truth : but it is of no importance whether his felicity be founded on truth, or on delusion.'

The next subject is on the Causes of Tasso's Madness, taken from Manso's Life of the Italian Poet. It is systematically described ; but Tasso's own account, in his letters, is the most curious part : he was certainly mad, ' *ratione modoque.*' Mr. Heron's reflections are worth transcribing.

' The high things, which Manso heard, doubtless originated from Tasso's warm attachment to the Platonic philosophy ; that sublime tissue of dreams and visions. I would remark, upon the whole subject of this letter, that it is a woeful proof of the weakness of the most exalted mind, when it lays the rein upon the neck of imagination. A man of genius cannot take too much care to prevent his supernatural fancy from assuming any power over common life. The effect of imagination upon the mind is like that of lime upon a fruit-tree ; a little buried at the root, will make it healthy and flourishing ; but too much will totally destroy it.'

The forty-fourth Letter is on Literary Forgery ; but the author takes no notice of that species of it which consists in publishing under borrowed names. But we believe it to be as innocent as the ascribing modern productions to an ancient author ; and we have fully examined the subject, in our review of Chatterton's productions, ascribed to Rowley : Mr. Heron agrees with us in this opinion.

He then considers which of the Roman authors were really originals. In his opinion, Plautus has some pretensions to this quality : Lucretius is in the middle rank between an original and an imitator : Horace is a copyist, except in his satires and epistles ; and this ' Sabine puppy' of the two hundred and thirtieth page, is in the three hundred and ninetieth ' an original and exquisite writer : ' Ovid is an original in his *Fasts* and *Metamorphoses*, two works of inferior value : and Celsus, the most servile of copyists, is said to deserve the same title : Phædrus, Juvenal, Persius, Lucan, Pliny, Boethius, and above all, ' *velut inter ignes Luna minores,*' Tacitus, are accounted originals. On the whole, these decisions are just : Celsus, Pliny, and Lucan, are the only flagrant exceptions ; and these were owing probably to his not understanding the subjects of the two former authors, and not having read the last. It is not the first instance, in which Mr. Heron has decided on the merits of an author, with which it is pretty certain he is little acquainted.

The forty-sixth Letter contains some very just Remarks on the Distinction between Reading and Learning, and the Impropriety of calling a Man, who has only read much, with-

out Reflection, learned.—The next Letter is intended as a supplement to the former analysis of science from Bacon. It contains some additional remarks on moral philosophy, and social science.

The forty-eighth Letter is on Tasso's Language, and contains a good apology for some of his too figurative expressions in the *Gierusalemme liberata*.

The forty-ninth Letter is an Examination of Addison's Criticisms; and, as Mr. Heron has often spoken in the most disrespectful style of this author's decisions, we shall select a specimen of his remarks.

'Spect. No. 5. Addison hath given more proofs than one of his very slight acquaintance with the Italian language. Armida is, in the opera of Rinaldo, called an Amazonian enchantress, or more properly an enchanting Amazon (taking enchanting in rather an uncommon acceptation), not from her being of the nation of the Amazons, as Addison strangely misunderstands it; but from her being an enchantress and virago. The remark on the Christian magician is equally absurd. The magician doth not deal with the devil, as Addison misrepresents it much in the spirit of an old woman, but with angels, the dæmons of Platonism; who were thought the servants of good men, and none but the good. Before such criticisms no work can stand. The critic totally misrepresents the meaning, and then writes criticisms upon his own misrepresentations. The noted attack on Tasso, which follows these odd blunders, is dismissed in pity and silent contempt. Tasso is innocent of the charge, and must be honourably acquitted. The English of Mr. Addison's violent hatred of the opera is, that he wrote for the English theatre, and was mortified to see it neglected for the Italian.'

The other hypercriticisms are, as usual, a strange mixture of petulance and good sense; of a decisive manner, and incorrect reasoning.

The following Letter, sent with the Confessions of Rousseau, only contains a parallel between him and Cardan. They were both their own biographers; both egotists; and both, sometimes, sublime.—The fifty-first Letter contains some of Sadi's apologues, translated from the French. They are of unequal merit: none of them deserve to be very particularly distinguished.

The fifty-second Letter contains some farther Remarks on Tasso. They relate to the conduct of the poet; for his language had been already considered. We cannot follow the critic in this path; but shall select a passage, which seems to deserve attention.

'With regard to the faulty characters in the *Gerusalemme*, I think that there are far too many female warriors in it. We are

are obliged to Virgil for the first personage of this sort; the very sense of Homer admitted no such dreams. Dacier hath well observed that a circumstance that is positive fact in real life, might yet be much too improbable for poetry. We know from history that Vermina, the daughter of Syphax, was in the field fighting in assistance of Hannibal, when he received his last defeat from Scipio; a circumstance, which, being so recent, probably suggested Camilla to Virgil. We know from history the martial spirit of Bonduca, of many Scandinavian ladies, and the like; yet all these will not vindicate the admission of female warriors into poetry, where the grand truth of nature is the object, not the paltry truth of fact. Tasso hath, however, a very strong apology to offer for his sometimes making the word warrior of the feminine gender, and that is the coincidence of his story with the times and manners of chivalry: times and manners which presented so many instances of this, solecism in costume, as almost to elevate truth of fact into truth of nature.'

The remarks in this Letter, frequently display both taste and judgment.

The next subject is Literary Hypocrisy, or rather the affected modesty which fears, or would be thought afraid, to decide. Our author laments the loss of the 'confidentia sui,' which he thinks is unknown. It may perhaps be one of his merits, that he has endeavoured to recall it. While these Letters remain, this quality cannot be forgotten. The following is a picture from nature.

'A yet more glaring literary hypocrisy is that by which an ignorant man assumes the garb of science; as the worst hypocrisy in the moral world is that by which a vicious man assumes the mask of religion. In the latter, a hypocrite may often be discovered by pushing his simulation too far; and in the like manner a literary impostor is apt, not to display too much learning, for he hath got none; but, to use the character of a learned man in the extreme. He shakes his head at the most trivial question, and, with many hems and ha's, says it is a difficult point, a very difficult point indeed, and would require very mature examination. When any person present says the point is very easy, takes it in hand, and solves it to the satisfaction of every body, the hypocrite of learning shakes his head, says that solution is trivial; and perhaps is polite enough to hint that it equals the understanding of the audience; but that he, upon proper occasion, and to a learned company, could have given a much more profound account of the matter.'

The fifty-fourth Letter is on false Fame, and the Difficulty of acquiring solid Reputation. There is some merit in this Letter; and we may safely trust the dictates of an author, who has shifted his shape so often, with this view.

The following Letter is on the Character, the Language, and the particular Beauties of Tasso's 'Jerusalem delivered;' and

and concludes a criticism on this poem, which though generally too favourable, is, on the whole, very valuable.—The next subject is the Degrees of Scientific Fame. We believe the sciences are arranged according to general opinion, but by no means correctly. The inventor of the forty-seventh Proposition of the first book of Euclid, deserves more of mankind than all the epic writers who have ever flourished; yet epic poetry is in the first, and geometry the last part of the scale.

The last Letter is on Criticism and Critics, in which we shall not follow Mr. Heron, because he again descends to ribaldry and impertinence. It is surprising, that an author who possesses some fair pretensions to fame, should debase them with such a contemptible alloy.

We have freely followed our author, and impartially awarded him his due praises and censure. We shall not, therefore, give any general character of his work, for its merits and its faults are so nicely blended, that it would delay us too long again to review them: but we must add a word or two at parting.—At first sight of the book, we were struck with a great similarity between it and the Thirty Letters of Mr. Jackson: each seemed to have left the beaten tracks for the more retired shades of science: each has illustrated Shakspeare, and endeavoured to draw some valuable author from obscurity. In the progress of our perusal, this similarity was more striking; and we found many passages so much alike, that we could not be ignorant of their source. But here the parallel fails. Mr. Heron cannot contend with Mr. Jackson in ingenuity, in propriety, or decorum. We differed, in one instance, from the latter; but we continued to read and to esteem him: we sometimes admire the talents of the former, but we wish to remember him no more.

Observations on the Diseases incident to Seamen. By Gilbert Blane, M. D. F. R. S. 8vo. 6s. Murray.

IT must be pleasing to humanity, to see war despoiled of some of its horrors, and that the advantages arising from navigation are not purchased by the health of a hardy, laborious, and useful race. Captain Cook carried his ships from arctic to antarctic regions with so little loss, that he seemed almost under the protection of a preserving providence, to teach mankind how much may be attained by a careful attention to the means in their power. The hurry attendant on the equipping a numerous fleet, the services in which they are engaged during a war, and the very different arrangement necessary in a ship of force, will, in a great degree, prevent the successful plans from being followed with any very minute exactness.

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Yet great attention seems to have been paid in every department; and, after the crews had been for some time together, after old infections had been crushed, or worn out, the fleet in the West Indies seems to have enjoyed an unexampled state of good health. After it had refitted at New York, in 1782, a squadron under lord Hood kept at sea, in a high latitude, near twelve weeks, without any appearance of scurvy. Commanders have indeed been lately more attentive to this part of their duty; and, though marine discipline is said to be on the decline, the management of the seamen in this respect is much improved; and, through the whole history, we find the best regulated ships the most healthy. More care is now taken of the clothes and births; provisions are better prepared, antiscorbutic diet more freely intermixed with salted meat, and the first approaches of disease more carefully guarded against.

We do not find any thing very new in this work; but many important improvements are brought together, delivered under the sanction of an able and intelligent author, and enforced, through his representations, by the orders of the admiralty. It is our duty to observe, that the regulations proposed in his memorials were not unknown or uncommon in the fleet; many commanders had observed and enjoined them; but it reflects no little credit on Dr. Blane, that he has rendered them more general, and established them by the highest authority.

The first part of this work is historical: it is a clear, exact, and unvarnished relation of facts, frequently illustrated by useful tables. We cannot give any regular analysis, but shall subjoin an abstract of some striking particulars. In the early periods of the war, the fleet was very sickly, but less unhealthy than the French fleet, where discipline is less regarded. In the progress, each fleet grew more healthy, for which one cause may be assigned, viz. familiarity with contagion. In the French ships, for instance, taken in 1782, the dirt was so offensive, as to produce a contagious fever in those men sent on board, while no fever was found among their own men: and, in our own fleet, different crews, when joined in one ship, though each were healthy before, soon sicken. Our author seems to overlook this cause, though the facts which have been mentioned are taken from him; he attributes it to the men knowing each other, and their commander better; to superior discipline; to the infection, brought by pressed men, having been exhausted. Somewhat may be, perhaps, allowed to each of these causes, though very little; yet the great and continued health of the crew of the Formidable may, in some degree, be attributed to them. The chief disorders in the early part of a war, are fevers; these disappear in the tropical climates, and become fluxes; in low latitudes, fevers lose much

much of their virulence, and soon cease. In the progress of the cruise, the scurvy begins to appear; at first it is only detected by spreading ulcers, in consequence of accidental wounds; afterwards it appears in its own peculiar form. We find it, in our last war, less frequent and less violent than in any former one. The native vegetable acids cured it completely, even at sea; the malt stopped its progress, if taken in the early stages; and wine and melasses contributed, in a great degree, to prevent its appearance. It was found to be of the greatest consequence to watch its first symptoms. We allow it to be 'unphilosophical' to deny that the scurvy is contagious; but we do not think that our author has sufficient reasons even to raise a suspicion that it is so.

'There was a considerable increase of scurvy in May, 1782, compared with the former months of this campaign; but very inconsiderable, compared with what had occurred in cruises of the same length in former years. The last division of the fleet had been at sea seven weeks all but one day when it arrived at Port Royal, and though the scurvy had appeared in several of the ships, it did not prevail in any of them to a great degree, except in the *Nonfuch*. Out of fourteen deaths which happened in the whole fleet from this disease, in May, seven of them were in this ship, and several were sent from her to the hospital in the last and most desperate state of it. But, upon the whole, the cases of the true sea scurvy in the fleet in general were few and slight, and a great many of those given in the reports under the head of scurvy, were cutaneous eruptions or ulcers, not properly to be classed with it.

'The cruise in the preceding year to windward of Martinico, may be compared with that in May of this year; for the fleets in both cases had been at sea about the same length of time. But the comparison is very greatly in favour of the latter, which is most probably to be imputed to the plentiful supply of melasses, wine, sour krout, and essence of malt. But no adequate reason that I could discover can be assigned for the prevalence of it in the *Nonfuch*, to a degree so much more violent than in the other ships; and it was here farther remarkable, that it attacked every description of men indiscriminately; for I was assured by the officers and by the surgeon, that not only the helpless and dispirited landsman was affected, but old seamen who had never before suffered from it on the longest cruises. I have been led by this, and some other facts, to suspect that there may be something contagious in this disease.'

The only other fact, afterwards adduced is, that the scurvy once spread from the naval hospital at Portsmouth, to the adjacent country; but this has been often combated.

It appears, from the comparative returns, that the West India fleet was more healthy than that which cruised in the

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channel; this is easily explained, when we recollect that the home fleet was constantly recruited by pressing, and that the pressed men were often landsmen. Another fact, seemingly more extraordinary, is, that frigates are more healthy than ships of the line.

‘ From the account of the three frigates at the bottom of the list in the table, it appears how much more healthy they are than ships of the line. The total complements of the three is exactly equal to that of one seventy-four gun ship; but their whole sickness and mortality is less than that of any one ship of the line of that class, although the Triton was uncommonly sickly for a frigate.

‘ There seem to be several causes for the superior degree of health usually enjoyed by this smaller class of ships. There is less chance of mixtures of men in frigates, as their complement is smaller: it is more easy for the captain and officers to keep an eye over a few men than a great number; for in a great ship there are generally men, who, concealing themselves in the most retired parts, no one takes cognizance of them, and they destroy themselves, and infect others, by their laziness and filth. In the next place, there is a greater proportion of volunteers and real seamen in frigates, and more landsmen and pressed men in ships of the line, the former being more in request, on account of the greater chance of prize-money. Lastly, a small ship is more easily ventilated, and the mass of foul air issuing from the hold, from the victuals, water, and other stores, as well as the effluvia exhaling from the men's bodies, is less than in a large ship.’

The month of April, 1782, distinguished for the most glorious victory perhaps ever gained, because the forces were more than usually equal, is also distinguished for the superior health of the fleet. The mortality on board, exclusive of wounds, was only 1 in 862. It was more healthy than any of the preceding twenty-three months, or any future month, till the fleet reached America. Independent of not having been lately exposed to the land air, in watering parties, and the great supply of antiscorbutics received from England,

‘ Might not this extraordinary degree of health have also been owing, in part, to the effects of success upon the spirits of the men? It is related, that when the fleet under admiral Matthews was off Toulon, in daily expectation for some time of engaging the combined fleet of France and Spain, there was a general stop put to the progress of disease, particularly of the scurvy, from the influence of that generous flow of spirits, with which the prospect of battle inspires British seamen. But if the mere expectation and ardour of a battle, without any happy event, could have such a sensible effect, what must have been the effect of the exultation of victory, a victory in which the naval glory of our country was revived and retrieved, after a series

series of misfortunes and disgraces, which had well nigh extinguished the national pride in every department of service. The plain and honest, though unthinking seaman, is not less affected by this than the more enlightened lover of his country. Even the invalids at the hospital demonstrated their joy, upon hearing of this victory, by hoisting shreds of coloured cloth on their crutches.

‘It would appear, that there is something in situations of exertion and danger, which infuses a sort of preternatural vigour. When the mind is interested and agitated by active and generous affections, the body forgets its wants and feelings, and is capable of a degree of labour and exertion, which it could not undergo in cold blood. The quantity of muscular action, employed in fighting at a great gun for a few hours, is perhaps more than what is commonly employed in a week in the ordinary course of life, and though performed in the midst of heat and smoke, and generally with the want of food and drink, yet the powers of nature are not exhausted nor overstrained; and the future health of those who survive unhurt by external violence, is so far from being injured, that it is sometimes mended by this violent but salutary agitation.’

Another very effectual, but violent remedy for diseases, was the hurricane in October, 1780. Every practitioner on the islands found its efficacy; the chronic fluxes in the hospitals were cured or relieved by it; the phthises were generally relieved, and sometimes cured. Every one had a keener appetite; and those on the verge of disease, who had looked thin and fallow, became fresh and plump. The fleet was then at New York; but the naval hospitals were much less crowded after this dreadful convulsion of nature.

‘I have been able, says our author, to calculate the numbers of deaths from disease in this great fleet, both on board and at hospitals, during the period of my own service, which was three years and three months, and they amounted to 3200, independent of those that were killed and died of wounds.

‘There died of disease in the fleet I belonged to, from July, 1780, to July, 1781, about one man in eight, including both those who died on board and at hospitals. But the annual mortality in the West India fleet, during the last year of the war, that is, from March, 1782, to March, 1783, was not quite one in twenty. This difference was partly owing to the general increase of health in fleets as a war advances, partly to some improvements in victualling, and partly to better accommodations as well as regulations in what related to the care of the sick.

‘Though the mortality in fleets in the West Indies is, upon the whole, greater than in Europe, yet it has so happened, that, in the late war, the fleet at home has, at particular periods, been considerably more sickly than that in the West Indies was at any one time. I was informed by Dr. Lind, that
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when the grand fleet arrived at Portsmouth, in November, 1779, a tenth part of all the men were sent to the hospital. It appears, that in the years 1780 and 1781, a period at which the fleet in the West Indies was most sickly, the medium of the numbers on the sick list was one in fifteen, and many of these were very slight complaints; whereas, in the fleet alluded to in England, the diseases were mostly fevers, and so ill as actually to be sent to the hospital. It appears likewise that there was the greatest proportion of sick in our fleet when it was on the coast of America, in September, 1780. This difference is owing to the greater prevalence of the ship fever and of the scurvy in a cold than in a hot climate.

Added to 3200, who died of disease, 648 were killed in battle, and 500 died of wounds; in the whole, 4348, independently of those who fell in action in single ships. Dr. Blane quotes a passage from Arrian, in which we are told that in Alexander's expedition a greater number died of disease than in battle.

The Second Part is on the Cause of Sickness in Fleets, and the Means of preventing it. This is a valuable collection of the best methods hitherto known of preserving the health of seamen, and we would strenuously recommend it to the attention of every commander. Even the best informed will probably find some valuable hints in it. It may be proper to preserve the following short observation:

‘ It is difficult to ascertain how far the influence of vapours from woods and marshes extend; but there is reason to think that it is to a very small distance. When the ships watered at Rock Fort, they found that if they anchored close to the shore, so as to smell the land air, the health of the men was affected; but upon removing two cables length, no inconvenience was perceived. I was informed of the following fact, in proof of the same, by the medical gentlemen who attended the army in Jamaica. The garrison of Fort Augusta, which stands very near some marshes, to which it is to leeward when the land wind blows, was yet remarkably healthy; but it became at one time extremely sickly upon the breaking in of the sea in consequence of a high tide, whereby the water which was retained in the hollows of the fort produced a putrid moisture in the soil, exhaling a vapour offensive to the smell, and with all the noxious effects upon health commonly arising from the effluvia of marshes.’

The Third Part contains the Description and Treatment of Diseases most frequently occurring in Fleets, in hot Climates. The first disease is the ship fever, now well known. The description of the febrile delirium is animated and correct. There is one remark which we did not recollect, but an observation to the same purpose occurs in Celsus, copied from Hippocrates, and it is candidly mentioned in the note.

‘*Quibus causa doloris, neque sensus ejus est, his mens labor.*’ The usual irritations to discharge the excrementitious substances are not, in febrile delirium, referred to their proper origin, but occasion general uneasiness, and often an exacerbation of the delirium. If patients, in this situation, are reminded of the probable necessity, they soon perceive it, and, after the proper discharge, are much more quiet. When opium is necessary in the ship fever, Dr. Blane recommends adding to it a small proportion of camphor, and half a grain of emetic tartar; but he thinks the medicine is much more effectual when joined with some neutral: in that situation, he chose the spiritus mindererij, and sometimes nitre. We have stated this remark, because our author thinks it new; but in this way we have frequently employed it with success, without suspecting that we had made any discovery. He does not recommend the Peruvian bark indiscriminately, but with antimony, or some neutral, after having evacuated the intestines. This is sound and judicious advice.

The next diseases are the bilious, remitting, and yellow fevers; but the treatment affords little remarkable. In the vomiting attendant on the latter, the infusion of chamomile flowers is said to be sometimes useful; but it is well known to be an obstinate, and often an unconquerable symptom.

Dr. Blane gives also his observations in favour of the success of flowers of zinc and white vitriol in intermittents. On the subject of fluxes and scurvy, we meet with little that ought to detain us. In the latter, we are informed that the simaruba, to be successful, should be given in a weak decoction.

The volume concludes with some account of the wounds received in battle, on the 12th of April, 1782. In that action 266 were killed, and 88 died of their wounds; 16 of these died of the locked jaw, and 3 only recovered from the disease. One of these used opium as usual; but was much relieved by the warm bath. Another took large quantities of bark and opium; but the most sensible benefit arose from a cataplasm of twelve ounces of opium beat into that form, with the tinct. Thebaic. and applied to the cheek. The third was relieved by opium, camphor, the warm bath, and mercurial friction. The most active and vigorous application was certainly that of the opiate cataplasm; the rest present nothing new. Mr. Alanson's method of amputating is said to have answered very well; and Dr. Blane recommends some simple tourniquets to be always in readiness, during action, to prevent hæmorrhages, which sometimes prove fatal before the man can be carried to the cockpit.

A Discourse on Education, and on the Plans pursued in Charity Schools. By S. Parr, LL. D. 4to. 2s. 6d. Cadell.

DR. Parr's design in this Discourse will be best understood from that part of his Preface, in which he explains it.

'This Discourse was preached before a very respectable audience; and it is now submitted to the candour of the public, at the request of some persons, the sincerity of whose approbation I cannot distrust, and with the authority of whose judgment I ought not to trifle. I intend it, in some measure, as a sequel to a sermon which I published in 1780; at the desire of the late Mr. Thurlow. In that sermon, I entered into a full and elaborate vindication of the general principles on which charity-schools are supported. But upon the present occasion, I have studiously preserved, a plainer style: I have chiefly attended to the practical part of the subject: I have enlarged more copiously upon the best methods of religious education for all young persons; and, with a very few exceptions, I profess only to deliver such common and useful observations, as are adapted to the apprehension of common and well-disposed readers.'

Although the attention of the writer be chiefly directed to the practical part of his subject, yet he never shrinks from the discussion of speculative points, when particular assertions are to be supported by the investigation of general principles; or where the utility of practical rules is to be evinced by the theory on which they rest.

The discourse opens with some preliminary observations on proverbial writings, considered as the vehicles of religious and moral instruction. Of this species of exordium the writer confesses, that it is not necessarily connected with his subject.

* It will, perhaps, be said, that observations of this kind may be affixed to any passage in any part of the book. I allow the fact; but am able to blunt the edge of every objection which may be drawn from it; for, in the first place, it is certainly right, in some form or other, to explain, in the ears of a Christian congregation, the general character of proverbial writings: secondly, no form can be more proper than to make such explanation an appendage to some particular precepts; and, finally, no precept can be more interesting to us than that which is delivered in the text, whether we consider ourselves as the professors of a pure religion, or the members of a civilized community.'

But surely no defence is necessary. Phlegmatic, indeed, must that critic be, who, however averse to digression, does not think the use of it, in the present instance, sufficiently warranted by our author's observations.

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Dr. Parr now examines the opinions of Mandeville and Rousseau, two writers who, though arguing from principles diametrically opposite, have advanced to conclusions nearly similar, and equally dangerous and paradoxical. To the churlish misanthropy of the former, and the fallacious refinements of sentimental enthusiasm, which enliven the writings of the latter, Dr. Parr opposes the venerable authority of antiquity; and what he justly esteems superior to every other test, the plain and irresistible evidence of reason. He condemns the fashionable arrogance of those who boast of new and important discoveries peculiar to the present times; and he particularly asserts, that the general principles of ethics have been established on sure foundations. And hence the general principles of education, he contends, are the same, or nearly the same in all ages, and all times.

‘They are fixed unalterably in the natural and moral constitution of man. They are of the same kind in the fierce African, in the sluggish Greenlander, and in the more enlightened and polished inhabitants of the temperate zone. They are to be found in our affections and passions, some of which must be controuled, and some cherished, in every state of manners, and under every form of society.—From the right apprehension of them, we discover “the way in which a child ought to go,” and by the right use of them “when he is young,” we shall qualify him, “when old,” for not departing from it.’

In the subsequent part of the discourse, Dr. Parr undertakes to prove the truth of the assertion, ‘that children will generally not depart from the way in which they have been brought up;’ he then mentions ‘some of the instances in which the greatest care is necessary to educate them virtuously;’ and lastly, delivers his opinion on the general principle of charity-schools, and on the particular plan which is pursued in that of Norwich.

In treating of the first head, the learned writer wishes not to make an exact balance of the good and evil dispositions which are said to be implanted in the human heart. He thinks it sufficient to assume the existence of both, and to shew the increasing force which each receives from habitual indulgence. On this topic he pursues a train of argument equally just and satisfactory. From analogy, and from fact, he reasons with the same vigour of sentiment, and splendour of language. But we must confine ourselves to the following specimen.

‘Now the justness of Solomon’s remark on the use of instruction may be thus elucidated. The moral powers of men, peculiar as the province is where they act, and the effects which they produce, are governed by laws analogous to those which pervade the intellectual and bodily constitution of our species.

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By the industrious hand, tasks in appearance the most laborious are executed with surprising facility. By understandings which patient and intense study has invigorated, the most complex relations of ideas are, in a moment, unravelled, and the most extensive train of argumentation is connected with accuracy. Thus, too, where persons have been trained up in a constant and sincere regard to their religious and social duties, sensibility, in time, anticipates the suggestions of reason, and passion faintly resists the dictates of conscience: the general course of life is almost mechanically exact, and the embarrassments arising from particular situations are quickly surmounted: our best volitions are formed without anxious deliberation, and our best deeds are performed without painful effort. At first, perhaps, we were led to detached and separate actions from the conviction that they were either proper, meritorious, or useful: but these ideas become afterwards blended in one bright assemblage, which we do not attempt to distinguish, and with their united force, of which we are instantaneously sensible, they impel us to perform what practice has made easy, and what reflection, when we stood in need of its guidance, had shewn to be right.

Whatever speculative tenets we may have adopted upon the abstract subjects of necessity and free-will, we must perceive both in the moral defects and excellences of men a degree of uniformity, of which, be the adventitious and concurrent causes what they may, the force of habit alone will afford a clear and complete solution. Upon what occasions, we may ask, does virtue appear advanced to the most exalted point of perfection, or vice sunk into the most hopeless and abject state of degradation? Where the principle of conduct is determined not by deliberate reflection, but by sudden and almost irresistible impulse: where opportunity, whether for good or bad, is followed up by such actions as are correspondent to the prevailing bias of our opinions and inclinations: where the dread of punishment is insufficient to deter, and the hope of reward is not necessary to encourage: where the slightest temptation instigates to the most atrocious crimes, and the smallest incentive incites to the most meritorious deeds. Even the exceptions to the general character of individuals are not inconsistent with the general rules relating to the power of custom. For the unexpected frailties we lament in the virtuous, and the partial excellencies we may find even in the vicious, may sometimes be traced up to some early and habitual principles. These considerations evince the urgent necessity of teaching men to enter, as soon as possible, on a right course of action, of planting the firmest barrier against vices which it is so difficult to abandon, and of giving timely assistance to those virtues, in which it is so delightful to persevere, and from which it is so easy not to depart.

Surely nothing is better calculated to promote the cause of virtue, than such a representation of the facility which attends

the habitual cultivation of it ; a representation which depends not on the fanciful and unsupported assertions of an arbitrary dogmatist, but rests on the constitution of human nature.

Under the second head, the subject is considered more in detail. The instances in which the greatest care is necessary to educate children virtuously, consist, according to our author, ' in the government of the passions, in a sense of shame, in a strict regard to truth, in habits of diligence, and in the love of God, intermixed with a rational and feeling reverence.' On each of these he enlarges with that precision which evinces an intimate knowledge of the heart of man, and with the honest confidence of one who has succeeded in reducing that knowledge to practice.

In the second part of this Discourse the author enters into a defence of the principles of charity-schools, combating every objection which has been urged against them, and stating every advantage which can accrue from them, in the undaunted language of truth, and with the additional recommendations of natural, though nervous eloquence. Of this we have a more particular instance in the mode in which the author speaks of the Norwich charity-school. In other hands these topics might have appeared in some respects inconsistent with the dignity of the pulpit : under the direction of Dr. Parr they will not be deemed liable to such an objection. Nor are we at a loss to account for this singularity : *τη λέξει*, says the great father of Grecian criticism *, *δει διαπνεειν εν τοις αργοις μερεσι* ; a rule which, though it related originally to the style of epic poetry, Dr. Parr has happily adhered to in the present instance.

Thus much may be observed in general ; we must, however, mention one part of this Discourse, in which the pathetic style is carried to a high degree of perfection. After enlarging on the temper and genius of women, and enforcing the necessity of extending to them the benefits of education, he considers the melancholy prevalence of female prostitution as the natural and destructive produce of ignorance and idleness. The plan of the Norwich school, being admirably calculated to remedy this evil, leads our author to reflections, which he who can read without emotion, is fit for treason, fratricide, and spoils. We are sorry we have not room to insert them.

The notes, which are subjoined, are such as the author deemed necessary to explain his opinions, or to justify his reasoning. ' They are taken, says he, from writers whom I know to be familiar to every man of letters ; and they are placed at the end of the Discourse rather than at the bottom of the

* Aristot. Poetic. cap. 16.

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† page, left I should give offence by an appearance of unmanly and ostentatious pedantry.

To this account we will add nothing. To those who are already acquainted with our author's classical reputation, it were needless to remark, that the quotations are apt and elegant; while to those who are not, it were impertinent to expatiate farther on a topic, which their studies have not qualified them to relish.

An Attempt to prove the Existence and absolute Perfection of the supreme unoriginated Being, in a demonstrative Manner. By Hugh Hamilton, D.D. F.R.S. Dean of Armagh. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Robinson.

ON reading the title of this work we were at a loss to guess what the author might mean by *proving* the existence, &c. in a *demonstrative manner*. After undertaking, or attempting to *prove* any point, is there not some redundancy in the idea of doing it in a *demonstrative manner*? For could it be *proved* in any other manner? Are not a *proof* and a *demonstration*, in philosophic language, understood to mean the same thing?

Having perused the performance, we find ourselves unable to explain this part of the title: it still appears superfluous, and not properly applicable to the preceding part. The author's use of arguments *à priori*, in his demonstration, in preference to those *à posteriori*, will not remove our objection, because he allows, that demonstration may be obtained by either method of reasoning, though he hath chosen the former, and that apparently on sufficient ground. Had we not found this little work worthy of more than common attention, we should not have noticed a small impropriety in the title-page. Trivial faults are, however, more striking than censurable, when overbalanced by merit.

The *Attempt*, &c. as the dean modestly styles it, is preceded by an Introduction of considerable length, containing a *View of the Arguments that have been used for proving the Existence and Attributes of God, and the Reasons for proposing a new one.*

Though the following argument may be easily enough understood without any preface or introduction, yet there will be some advantages in having first read what is here delivered: it will, I hope, contribute to remove a prejudice that has long prevailed against our endeavouring to prove the being and perfections of God, otherwise than from the consideration of his works; and the reader, being previously made acquainted with the nature of the following argument, and the reasons for now

offering it to the public, will be better qualified to judge of it, and perhaps be better disposed to give it his attention.'

The author then giving a short explanation of the nature of the two sorts of argument, viz. *à priori* and *à posteriori*, in the words of bishop Law and Dr. S. Clarke, enters into detail on this subject, making, by the way, some pertinent strictures on the fallacious methods of reasoning adopted by the atheists, particularly Spinoza, and adds,

'Common sense, and, I may say, experience, will always be able to prevent men in general from falling into the absurdities of downright atheism, or from being persuaded by any metaphysical subtilties, that all things are so carried on by a blind and fatal necessity that no one event could possibly have happened otherwise than it has done. Atheistical writers, therefore, not being like to bring over many profelytes to their way of thinking, are not so dangerous to the cause of religion and morality as those that are called scepticks. These are such as admit that this world must indeed have been the work of some superior being, who is to be called God, and who had power and intelligence enough to do just what we see he has done; but at the same time assert, that none of our arguments are sufficient to produce a rational and firm belief of the perfections of his natural and moral attributes, whereon we may found a system of religious duties due to him as the moral governor of the world, who concerns himself in the happiness of his creatures, and from whose goodness and power we might hope for protection in this life, or for happiness in a better life hereafter. These writers would have us believe the existence of a God, or superior Being, merely as a speculative truth, not as one from which we might, with a reasonable certainty, draw any inferences that should influence our conduct, or give us either hopes or fears; and thus they propose a system which, for any useful purpose, is no better than atheism.'

Before going into a minute consideration of the method of reasoning on this subject *synthetically*, or *à priori*, Dr. Hamilton thinks proper to take notice of the objections made by sceptical writers to those arguments that are drawn *à posteriori*, for proving the being and perfections of God. Mr. Hume, in his *Essays, or Enquiry concerning the Human Understanding*, and in his posthumous work, entitled, *Dialogues concerning natural Religion*, having insisted much on the insufficiency of analogical reasoning, has induced our author to examine his three objections; all, he says, that he has *seriously* urged in the latter of these works. For a refutation of the 'false and groundless cavils proposed in the *Essays*,' the reader is referred by the dean to Leland's *View of the Deistical Writers*, and to Beattie's *Essay on the Nature and Immutability of Truth*. On the subject of Mr. Hume, he concludes as follows.

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* As it was proper on this occasion to shew how little weight there is in the objections that have been made to the argument *a posteriori*, which is applied to prove the existence, unity, and absolute perfection of the supreme Being, I thought I could not do better than to consider these objections as they have been stated by Mr. Hume, who certainly did not want either inclination or ability to set them off to the best advantage. He is a celebrated writer, and has been thought one of our most formidable opponents: it may, therefore, be fashionable to read, and perhaps to admire, this work of his; especially as he is known to have set a particular value upon it, by the provision he made in his will for having it published after his decease. And though he has written most part of this work in a manner between jest and earnest, no doubt he expected it would have a serious effect in promoting the cause of infidelity and scepticism in which he had laboured so long. For he has here openly inveighed against revealed religion, under the title of vulgar and popular superstition, and endeavoured to remove the very foundation of natural religion by denying the probability of God's moral attributes. I know not how his admirers will be able to reconcile that wisdom and gravity of character they ascribe to him, with his having employed his talents, even to the last stage of life, in trifling so egregiously and so professedly on, what he acknowledges to be, the most important of all subjects, natural theology and religion. In the character of Philo, he intended to exhibit to us a learned and acute sceptical philosopher; but his harangues are so inconsistent with each other, that he gives us only the idea of a careless young student, with a lively imagination, and an elegant flow of language, declaiming in a college-hall on the wrong side of a question.

He immediately subjoins,

* Many pious and ingenious persons, though perfectly satisfied with the proofs for the existence and absolute perfection of the supreme Being, drawn from the works of the creation, have thought themselves well employed in devising arguments, drawn from other topics and considerations, which might lead to the same conclusion, and might prove it perhaps in a still more forcible manner. Hence arose another way of reasoning on this subject, usually called the *argument a priori*. The scholastic terms *a posteriori* and *a priori* are used to denote the two methods of arguing, one from the nature of effects to the nature of their cause, the other from the nature of a cause to the nature of its effects. The argument *a priori*, taken in this sense, cannot be applied to the present subject; for we cannot argue from any thing considered as a cause when we mean to prove the existence or the attributes of that Being who is the first cause of all things. Therefore when we speak of proving the being and attributes of God *a priori*, we must understand that term in a more comprehensive sense, as it denotes the common

synthetic method of arguing, which is applicable to this as well as to most other subjects. In this method we lay down some evident principles or axioms, and from thence deduce other truths that are more complex.'

The learned dean now proceeds to give an account of the arguments of the principal and latest writers who have used the synthetic mode of reasoning on the existence and attributes of the supreme Being. The most celebrated of them are the productions of Mr. Locke, Dr. S. Clarke, Dr. Fiddes, and Mr. Wollaston. 'These, says Dr. Hamilton, were very learned men, and no doubt were well acquainted with what preceding authors had written on the same subject, and would not fail to adopt from them such arguments as they thought most for their purpose. The reader will therefore be sufficiently informed of the nature of this method of reasoning, and the progress that has been made in it, if I give him an account of the arguments that each of these eminent writers has advanced on this subject.'

The exhibition of these arguments is managed with perspicuity, and, we believe, with candour, and conveys some valuable metaphysical history; but it would be unsatisfactory, if not absurd, were we here to attempt an abridgement of what is already abridged. We must, therefore, refer our readers to the performance itself, for more adequate information. We shall only observe that, though the ingenious author is not altogether satisfied with what these celebrated men have advanced on this subject, and shews, that they were not equally confident of their strength in every part of their reasonings, it is his opinion, that their failure is most visible in the proofs they have undertaken of the unity of God.

The dean concludes his Introduction with an account of his own argument; for some idea of which, our readers will begin to grow impatient. The passage not being long, we shall transcribe it.

'As our argument is built chiefly on one principle, which I have laid down as an axiom, it is proper to say somewhat of it here, that the reader may more fully perceive its meaning. The axiom is this: "Whatever is contingent, or might possibly have been otherwise than it is, had some efficient cause which determined it to be what it is." Or in other words: "if two different or contrary things were equally possible, whichever of them took place, or came to pass, it must have done so in consequence of some efficient cause which determined that it, and not the other, should take place." The truth of this is so evident, that we cannot find any principle more evident by which we may prove it. It runs through our reasonings on many subjects, in which we should make little or no progress if we did
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not assume this as a self-evident axiom. Whenever we perceive that a thing might have been otherwise than it is, we naturally enquire for the cause which made it to be what it is. But when we are sensible that a thing is necessarily such as it is, we never enquire for the cause that made it to be what it is, for we reckon it absurd to ask why a thing is so, when we see there was no possibility of its being otherwise. This shews that contingency implies, and that necessity excludes, causality. If it be said that some things are determined to be what they are by chance, I answer, that in this case chance is as real and efficient a cause as any other: for it means a cause which, in its operation, is not directed by design to produce the particular effect it does, rather than some other effect. Thus most effects or events, brought about by human operations, are attended with some unforeseen and undesigned circumstances, and these we ascribe to chance; meaning that they were produced, not without a cause, but without a design. So that chance is always opposed to design: and this seems to be the only sense in which the word chance can be used with any meaning; except when it is used instead of the word probability; as when we say, there is a great chance, or there is but little chance, that such an event will happen.

Most of the following propositions are demonstrated indirectly, that is, they are proved to be true, by shewing that an absurdity or contradiction would follow from supposing them to be false. From the nature of the subject they will admit only of a proof of this kind, which, though it is not so pleasing to the mind, is, however, just as valid as a direct demonstration.

The treatise consists of nine propositions, with their demonstrations, corollaries, observations, or illustrations. The demonstrations are simple, clear, and some of them mathematically close and concise, all founded either on the above axiom, or on the proof of preceding propositions. The author has given us a contracted view of his propositions under the article of contents, as follows.

There must be some one being, at least, who is unoriginated, and has existed without a cause, without a beginning, and cannot cease to exist.—There is nothing in the nature of this Being that could possibly have been otherwise than it is.—He is impassive.—Truths relating to his nature are as capable of strict demonstration as any other truths.—All the attributes he possesses are unlimited or perfect.—He exists every where in the same manner he does any where.—He is an individual substance, without parts, every where identically the same.—He is possessed of power and knowledge unlimited, and all other natural attributes that can be called absolute perfections.—He is a maximum of existence.—But one unoriginated Being in the universe.—All things owe their existence to his power operating according to his will.—The unoriginated Being is the

the God and father of all.—And is possessed of goodness, mercy, justice, and all other moral perfections, such as become the supreme author and governor of the universe.’

Dr. Hamilton having laid a good deal of stress on the failure of his metaphysical predecessors, in their endeavours to prove the *unity*, we have paid particular attention to his seventh proposition, and shall present it, with its demonstration, to our readers.

‘ There is in the universe but one unoriginated Being, who must therefore be the original fountain of all existence, and the first cause of all things,

‘ The first proposition demonstrates that there must necessarily be one unoriginated Being; but neither the argument there used, nor any other argument, can prove there must necessarily be more than one. Because, when we have admitted one such Being, it is possible that all others may be derived from that one. This, however, does not prove that all others must be derived from that one, or that there may not be many unoriginated Beings in the universe of whose existence we have no knowledge or apprehension. The only way, therefore, by which we can determine whether it be possible there should be more than one, is by trying whether we can conceive, or consistently suppose, a second unoriginated Being. Now I say that such a supposition is inconsistent and untenable, and must come to nothing.

‘ For let us suppose there is a second Being, such as the first, unoriginated or self-existent and uncaused, having its non-existence impossible, or having necessity as the mode of its existence. Now from what has been demonstrated it appears that both these Beings must be eternal, immutable, impassive, omnipresent, indivisible, and unlimitedly possessed of all natural perfections or attributes; insomuch that it is impossible one of these beings should want any attribute the other has. Thus we find our idea of the second supposed Being (turn it as we will in our thoughts) is no other than the very idea we had of the first. For all the attributes of the second are as much the same with those of the first, as the properties of one circle (abstractedly considered) are the same with those of another. And since these Beings are both eternal, and both every where alike present, they cannot differ from each other even in any circumstance of time or place. Consequently there can be no possible difference, nor any ground of distinction between them; and therefore they cannot be distinct Beings, but must be one and the same.

‘ This way of arguing, I apprehend, may be admitted as conclusive, being exactly of the same kind and equivalent with that which geometers have allowedly used. For instance, two right lines, say they, cannot have a common segment: for in that case, these lines must evidently have all their other segments

ments in common also; so that all difference between them would vanish; and, therefore, they would not be two distinct lines, but must be one and the same. Just so, say we, two Beings cannot be unoriginated, and have necessity as the common mode of their existence; for in that case they must have their whole natures, and all the circumstances which necessarily attend their existence, in common also; and therefore they would not be distinct Beings, but one and the same Being*.

Thus we find it impossible even to form an idea of a second unoriginated Being, or to make it in any respect different from the idea we must necessarily have of the first; to which we cannot add any thing, neither can we diminish aught from it. Hence it follows that all Beings in the universe, except one, are derived Beings, and must owe their existence, in some manner or other, to one underived Being; who is, therefore, the ultimate and original fountain of existence, and the first cause of all things.

We are persuaded, that if the author had excluded from the above demonstration, the equivocal word *same*, which sometimes means *individually one*, as it generally does in the expression of *one and the same thing*; at others, *alike*, *exactly*, *precisely*, or *perfectly alike*; and had adopted this latter term, with any one of these three emphatical adjuncts, he would not have come to his present conclusion without more hesitation, if he had done it at all. The use of the word *same*, as it occurs more than once in this argument, amounts to little less than a supposition of what ought to be proved: when, in short, it is here taken in any other sense than *alike*, it clearly begs the question, and so far weakens the argument. The *two Beings supposed* are perfectly alike; but that it must necessarily follow that they are *individually one and the same* is, we believe, more than can logically be inferred. If so, we fear the author's reasoning on this important article, its main force depending on the point we have objected to, is less conclusive than he apprehends.

With respect to the dean's demonstrations of his other propositions, we recommend them to our learned readers, as well worth their consideration, and as calculated, upon the whole, to give satisfaction to candid and liberal minds. His close

* If it should be said, that as these are intelligent Beings they may still be supposed to have distinct consciousnesses and wills, and therefore may be distinct substances: I answer, this is only repeating the first supposition; viz. that these are two distinct substances, and, therefore, have distinct wills; and I say, that unless it can be shewn that the second supposed Being may possibly be a different and distinct substance from the first, we have no right to suppose it may have a consciousness or a will, distinct from that of the first.

and

and concise manner cannot be too much imitated by metaphysical writers; we mean such as shall pursue the synthetic method of reasoning, the analytic naturally demanding more compass.

A Dissertation on the Poor Laws. By a Well-wisher to Mankind.
Small 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly.

MUCH has been written within these few years on the tendency of the poor laws in this country, and it seems to be generally admitted, that instead of answering the charitable purpose of their institution, they are a source of great public evil, oppressive to the industrious part of the nation, and pernicious to the morals of the indigent. It appears to be a fact clearly established, that since the Reformation, about which time they were first enacted in England, the number of poor has increased in an amazing proportion. An effect so repugnant to the consequences which might naturally be expected from the advancement of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, affords strong reason to suspect that the misfortune, far from being diminished, is really aggravated by some unforeseen operation of the laws which were intended to restrain it. Conformably to such an opinion, the author of the Dissertation before us observes, that wherever most money has been expended for the support of the poor, there objects of distress are most frequent; while in other districts, where the least provision has been made for them, they are found to be far less numerous.

In respect to some of the inconveniencies arising from the present state of the poor laws, the author of the Dissertation makes the following remarks, which we know to be well founded.

In every parish, as the law now stands, they who have legal settlements, have the monopoly of labour, because the labouring poor are confined to their respective parishes. This provision is perfectly consistent with the whole system of our poor laws, and was designed not only to prevent the evils which naturally arise from vagrancy, and which might be equally prevented by more wholesome laws; but to protect each parish from intruders, who might become chargeable either for themselves or for their children. This provision is productive of considerable evils, which the legislature has never yet been able to remove: for not only have the industrious poor been restrained from seeking employment where they would otherwise have been received with joy, and confined to their own parishes, in which they were regarded with an evil eye; but
for

for want of competition the price of labour to the manufacturer has been much enhanced. With a certificate, indeed, the poor are permitted to reside in any parish where work is to be had, but then a certificate is not easily obtained. Now it is evident that by raising the price of labour you must directly check the progress of the manufactures; and by experience it is found, that the same effect arises indirectly to a more considerable extent; for in proportion as you advance the wages of the poor, you diminish the quantity of their work. All manufacturers complain of this, and universally agree, that the poor are seldom diligent, except when labour is cheap, and corn is dear.

Our author farther remarks, that the poor laws, to a certain degree, discourage improvements in agriculture: for that when the poor's rate amounts to ten shillings, or even to four shillings in the pound, no gentleman, with the view of profit, will be at the expence of clearing, fencing, breaking up, manuring, and cropping the waste and barren parts of an estate.

After displaying the pernicious effects of the poor laws in a variety of circumstances, the author takes a view of the different means which have been employed by the legislature for remedying those evils. He observes that the expedient most often tried, has been to compel both the pauper and his family to wear the Roman P in scarlet cloth upon their shoulders; but this, he thinks, was sacrificing the interests of the modest and ingenuous to those who were lost to shame. The next most common refuge has been to parochial and provincial workhouses, where it was imagined that the poor would do more work, and be fed much cheaper, than when dispersed in their several cottages. Experience, however, he observes, has never confirmed this expectation; and the contrivance has proved worse than abortive.

'The terror of being sent to a workhouse, says he, acts like an abolition of the poor's tax on all who dread the loss of liberty. It is in effect a virtual repeal, as far as it extends, of those laws, which should long since have given place to better regulations. But unfortunately the most worthy objects suffer most by this repeal, and the advantage to the public is little more than negative. The quiet and the cleanly dread the noise and nastiness, even more than the confinement of a workhouse. They pant for the pure and wholesome air, which they can never hope to breathe where numbers are confined within narrow limits, and sigh for that serenity and peace, which they must despair to find where the most profligate of the human species are met together. By the fear of being sentenced to such society, many, who deserve a better fate,

struggle

struggle with poverty till they sink under the burthen of their misery. Against county workhouses, improperly called houses of industry, the objections are much stronger. The buildings, the furniture, the salaries, the waste, and the imposition, every thing is upon a large and expensive scale, without its being possible to preserve, for any length of time, a system of economy. At first, indeed, there might be great exertion; but the novelty being over, few gentlemen would be found public spirited enough to continue their attendance and attention to a business in which, as individuals, they would be so little interested, and for which they must give up more important or more pleasant engagements and pursuits.

Another expedient put in practice is that of farming the poor, which the author condemns with the epithet of being the most abominable that ever was invented.

In some parishes, says he, they are farmed at so much an head, but in others the contract is for a given sum. In one parish in Gloucestershire a contractor has agreed to take all the expence of the poor upon himself for a very moderate consideration. Taking the present numbers in confinement, he has only two shillings a week for each; yet out of this he is to be at the charge of all litigations and removals, and to relieve all others who are not proper objects for a workhouse, and after all, to make a profit for himself.

All these expedients have the same tendency. They are adopted with a professed intention to lower the poor rates; and it is confessed, that many are thereby deterred from making application for relief, who would otherwise be a burthen to the public. But then is not this a partial, impolitic, oppressive repeal of a bad law, without reducing the tax: for it continues to increase, and without making a better provision for those among the poor who are most worthy of attention?

The author afterwards enquires into the provision made for the poor by other nations; observing particularly, that in Holland, where their chief dependence is on voluntary contribution, there is more industry, and fewer criminals, than in any other country in Europe of the same extent.

In the last part of the Dissertation, the author proceeds to deliver his sentiments concerning the properest means of remedying the evil arising from the defect of the poor laws; and he begins with establishing the principles on which a plan of this kind ought to be conducted. He observes, in the first place, that it ought to encourage industry, economy, and subordination; and, in the second place, regulate population by the demand for labour. To promote industry and economy, he

he thinks it necessary that the relief which is given to the poor should be limited and precarious ; and he accedes to the opinion, that if even the whole system of compulsive charity were abolished, it would be better for the state. Friendly societies, likewise, under good regulations, and established by law, he considers as a resource which would be productive of great advantage to the community. The remainder of the plan which he proposes is contained in the following extract.

‘ As long as it should be found expedient to retain a given proportion of the present poor tax, the disposal of this should be wholly at the discretion of the minister, churchwardens, and overseers, or the majority of them, subject only to the orders of a vestry. By this provision the subordination of the poor would be more effectually secured, and the civil magistrate would be at liberty to bend his whole attention to the preservation of the peace, and to the good government of the people.

‘ This plan would be aided and assisted much by laying a sufficient tax upon the ale-houses to reduce their number, these being the principal nurseries for drunkenness, idleness, and vice.

‘ Should things be left thus to flow in their proper channels, the consequence would be, that, as far as it is possible according to the present constitution of the world, our population would be no longer unnatural and forced, but would regulate itself by the demand for labour.

‘ There remains one thing more for the legislature to do, which is to increase the quantity of food. This may be done with ease, by laying a tax upon all horses used in husbandry, gradually increasing this tax till the farmers have returned to the use of oxen. This change would enable England not only to maintain her present population, but greatly to increase it. The land which now supports one horse, in proper working order, would bear two oxen for draft and for the shambles, if not also one cow for the pail ; or any two of these, with a man, his wife, and his three children. If we consider the number of horses at present used for husbandry in this island, should only half that number give place to oxen, it would not be easy to calculate, or even to conceive, all the benefits and advantages which the public would derive from this vast increase of food. In many parishes where they have no manufactures, but the cultivation of the soil, the horses consume the produce of more land than the inhabitants themselves require. Suppose a parish to consist of four thousand acres of arable and pasture land ; let this be cultivated by one hundred
and

and fifty horses, and let it feed one thousand souls : now if, for the present, we allow only two acres of oats and two of hay for each of the horses, the amount will be six hundred productive acres, which will be more than sufficient to feed the given number of inhabitants. But the fact is, that a horse, to be fully fed, requires five ton of hay, and from thirteen to three-and-twenty quarters of oats, per annum, according to his work. Some farmers allow the former, and the latter is given by the great carriers on the public roads, which would bring the computation to about eight acres each for horses used in husbandry ; but then few farmers suffer their horses to be highly fed. If we allow three acres of pasture for each ox or cow, and consider, that in calculating the quantity of land sufficient to maintain a team of horses, the needful fallows must be carried to account, we shall not be at a loss for food, when we have substituted two oxen, and one family of five persons, in the place of every horse.

It must be confessed, that the tax on horses would be apparently a tax on husbandry, but in reality it would only be a tax on pride and prejudice. Neither would it be a tax for the purpose of revenue, which would certainly be most impolitic ; but it would be a tax for the regulation of trade, beneficial to the public, and highly advantageous to the farmer. In China they use few cattle in the cultivation of the soil, and therefore they are able to support a more abundant population. By reverting to the ancient practice of ploughing with oxen instead of horses, we should enjoy the same advantage ; and till the population of our country had found its utmost limits, we should rejoice in affluence.

With the same intentions, the legislature should facilitate the laying common fields in severalty, leaving the inclosure of these lands to every man's discretion. Wherever these allotments have been carried into execution, the value of land has been nearly doubled. Yet, independent of the exertion, the time, and the fatigue, requisite to procure a private act of parliament for this purpose, the expence of the act itself, and of the consequent inclosure, is more than many are willing to incur. That the improvers of land should be subject to this expence is not just, and that men should be obliged to inclose these lands is neither just nor wise ; because hedge-rows consume much land, stint the growth of corn, cause it to lodge, prevent its drying, and harbour birds. If men are left at liberty, without restraint, when they find it for their interest to inclose, they will inclose.

That the enormous amount of the poor's rate, in some parts of the kingdom, is become oppressive to many of the inhabitants,

bitants, and that the dependence on an eleemosynary provision established by law, has likewise a bad effect on the morals of the lower class of the people, are facts which cannot be questioned. But to attempt to remedy the evil by a sudden abolition of the accustomed method of providing for the poor, would be an experiment which might prove dangerous to humanity. Even under the present imperfect state of the poor laws, a due administration of them, by men properly qualified for the task, would greatly palliate the bad consequences which are chiefly complained of; though a new act of the legislature is indispensably necessary towards rendering the legal system more beneficial in its operation, and more compatible with the good of the public.

Miscellanies, by Mr. Pratt, in Four Volumes. Small 8vo. 14s. Becket.

IN the two first volumes are Mr. Pratt's poetical labours; and a comedy entitled 'the School for Vanity,' which was exhibited, *one night only*, at the Theatre-Royal, Drury-Lane. A gentleman's valet opens the piece, receiving letters from other servants, whom he thus addresses. 'Walk in, gentlemen—not yet day with us—when visible, shall deliver your tenders.—Any of you for refreshment?—Every thing in the next room, from chocolate and asses milk, to cocoa, curds, and hung beef.' One would suppose that this mode of phraseology, in which the introductory words of every sentence are omitted, was intended to mark a peculiarity of character, like that of Briggs, in *Cecilia*. But no such thing.—The master, at his first appearance, expresses himself in the same abrupt and unconnected manner.—'Heigho! fairly done up—Play'd at visiting all day yesterday—The misfortune to be let in by every body—Well-bred manslaughter committed upon me from morning till night.'—This kind of language, used more or less by every character, is affected, ungraceful, and unnatural. But, without entering minutely into the merits or defects of this performance, our opinion, in few words is, that it possesses some wit and more humour; but the humour is coarse, the characters hackneyed, and the plot improbable and improperly conducted. Its ill success, therefore, may undoubtedly be accounted for by other reasons than those to which the author, in his preface, chooses to attribute it.

As a poet, Mr. Pratt certainly possesses a fertility of imagination, and a facility of expressing his sentiments; but the effusions of his fancy seldom display any strength of genius; they are more glittering than solid; more dazzling than bright.

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His

His diction is generally florid, and sometimes finical. When he aims at sublimity, he too frequently represents an Ixion pursuing a Juno, and embracing a cloud. Instead of the efforts of a vigorous mind, clothed in nervous or dignified phrase, we commonly meet with a lamentable poverty of ideas, half-hid beneath the veil of obscure metaphors, or embellished with the delusive lustre of glaring epithets, and encumbered with unmeaning ornaments. In proof of our assertion, we refer the reader to the 'Shadows of Shakspeare,' and 'Ode to the Sun.' Mr. Pratt, however, though he has no pretensions to be ranked in the first class of poets, is often entitled to our approbation. His style is commonly neat, smooth, and harmonious. If his descriptions are sometimes too ornamental, they are at others pleasingly picturesque; and he is not unfrequently natural, tender, and affecting. We chiefly allude to 'Sympathy,' and 'the Tears of Genius.'—Some of the lesser poems deserve the same commendation: others, particularly those taken from Emma Corbet (a novel of our author's), which we suppose were intended to give a striking idea of the delicacy and tenderness of that lady and her lover, are mawkish and nauseous to the last degree. Witness the following lines 'sent with a present of some pens to Emma.'

' Go, ingenious *artist*, to her
All ambitious to be *prest*;
Dear disclosures of sensation;
Agents of the gentle breast.

' Whiter than your whitest feather,
Is the hand which you'll embrace;
Yet more white the fair affection,
Whose emotions you shall trace.'

The first line leads us to suppose that the pen-maker, not the pens, was sent to be 'prest' by the lady; and the second stanza informs us, that they will 'embrace,' or hold her hand, not be held in it. But what is more extraordinary, and surely a very difficult office for pens and ink to execute, they are to delineate 'the *whiteness* of affection.'

' Go, and take a charge upon you,
Passing tender, passing dear;
Oh, the trust you bear is wond'rous!
Gentle agents, be sincere,

' Every sacred secret marking,
Gods! how precious ye will prove!
Softest sympathies imparting,
Are ye not the planet of love?

When first floating on the river,
 Lovely was your *limpid way* ;
 Lovely was your silver surface,
 Lovely was your *wat'ry play* :

' But for pastime still more lovely,
 Your *sweet feathers* now I send ;
 What so lovely, prithee tell me,
 As the service of a friend.

' Faithful to the fair deposits,
 Your least stroke shall reach my heart ;
 In its *elegant recesses*
 Shall be fix'd, what you impart.'

The first of these stanzas is repeated again at the end of the poem, which contains ten more equally puerile, or rather infantine, as these we have quoted. If Mr. Pratt had kept such tuneable nonsense, which may not improperly be styled the Muse's Lullaby, in the 'elegant recesses of his *own* heart,' it would have been more to his credit. How a man of our author's abilities should commit so many errors as deform these two volumes, is truly amazing. We might select a long list, 1. of incongruous ideas and absurd figures ; 2. incorrect numbers ; 3. vulgarisms ; 4. defective rhymes ; and, 5. inexplicable nonsense.

Lest we should fatigue the reader too much, we will confine our first division of faults to 'the Shadows of Shakspeare,' a Monody occasioned by the death of Mr. Garrick, for which the author obtained the myrtle wreath, at the villa of Bath-Easton. It certainly may be supposed to deserve peculiar attention, as 'it was recited among the ceremonies of the vase, and met the approbation of numerous and brilliant auditors, on the mornings of the vase : as it has been introduced by way of interlude on the Bath theatre ; and an immortalizing Muse (miss Seward), has celebrated our author, with other illustrious votaries of the vase, with whom to be associated is fame.'—These extracts from the Proemium were calculated to raise our expectations very high, and our disappointment of course was proportionably great. It begins thus :

' Soon as the breath of Rumour blew
 This solemn theme into the general ear,
 To holy Solitude I flew,
 And bade the Muse her sympathy prepare !
 There closeted with Thought,
 The brain its shapeless travail wrought !'

The idea of 'breath blowing a theme,' and the 'brain closeted with thought' producing a 'shapeless travail,' are circum-

circumstances passing strange indeed ! The latter phrase, particularly, may be justly denominated a *false conception*.

* The season to the subject solemnly did suit :
Day's dazzling orb was wholly down :
Pale Cynthia sat upon her silver throne ;
Th' obtrusions of the light were clos'd
It seem'd,——

* How could it ' seem' so, if the moon was up, as we are told in the preceding line ?

—— ' as Silence self repos'd,
For with the Air, the *Earth* and all her sons were mute.'

That the Earth should be silent, though Silence herself had not been asleep, as we are told was the case in this extraordinary night, cannot be considered as very remarkable ; for we apprehend it always is so, except in the peculiar convulsions of nature. The greatest wonder is to find *all* mankind, ' mute' in one line, and some of them freed from their dumbness in the next.

* All but the wretched, who, like me,
The gentle vigils kept of sympathy.
With cordial awe I hailed the shading night,
And kiss'd her dusky robe which muffled thus the night.'

' Night,' in the last line, may be an error of the press, but if we read *light* instead of it, there is an error in the sense, as we are told just before that its ' obtrusions were closed.'

* Base busy world, begone, begone, I said,
To mighty Garrick yield the serious mind,
This awful Now be sacred to the dead,
And turn the cautious key on human kind.'

Here the poet seems to have forgot in his anger what he told us in sober sadness just before, that the world, with a few exceptions, was extremely quiet. But to proceed ; mankind being thus locked out of doors, the awful *Now* suggests the following reflection.

* The dead—ah, me ! what dead ?—Here it began
The florid poet felt himself a man.'

What a surprising discovery ! what a pity that we cannot say in return, we have found the man a poet. We are soon after told, for we shall here cease following our author step by step, that Garrick

—— ' often *fore*, and *touch'd*, and *tun'd* the heart.'——

* Possibly a comma should have been placed after ' clos'd,' and omitted after ' seem'd ;' but even then the sense would be contradictory.

And

And that he

‘Chain’d, as to th’ attracting centre, every ear.’

Nature, likewise, in propria persona,

‘shed her *penfive* shower;

The mighty mother wept, alas! with me.’—

And what, if possible, is more beyond the comprehension of vulgar capacities,

‘Th’ imperial goddess mourn’d her own decay,

And wish’d she could a *second* birth bestow.’

She wishes, likewise, to give him a second birth, but finds it impossible. On which melancholy occasion, Melpomene ‘pois’d her dagger in air,’ and ‘*Thalia conceiv’d* a pain.’ The poet next accompanies *Fancy*, ‘arm’d with all her magic;’ and she certainly must have bewitched him when he wrote the two following lines; the first of which militates against sense, and the second against grammar.

‘Her waving wand, deep midnight deeper made,

With her I went—to where our Garrick *laid*.’

The ‘shady forms’ of Shakspeare’s character now appear, and pay their compliments to Mr. Garrick, in speeches selected from his plays, and adapted to the occasion. The bard himself, ‘wrapt in wonder at these various shews,’ as well he might, makes his appearance; and at the ‘waving of his wand,’

— ‘the mournful train again were *grav’d*.’

If this poem, likewise, had been ‘quietly inurn’d,’ as well as these ‘perturbed spirits,’ the author’s poetical reputation, with all due submission to the arbitrators of poetic honour at Bath-Easton be it spoken, would have suffered no diminution.

Our instances of the remaining faults with which we have charged Mr. Pratt, shall be selected from the other poems, which acquired him the garland of fame at the same villa.—

Incorrect numbers.

‘Or *night-living* Young, whose solemn harp

Sounded a requiem to the sheeted ghosts

Of pale Philander and of Narcissa fair.’

Vulgarisms, in the same poem, where they are by no means scattered with a sparing hand; for there we meet with a ‘*furious fatal* form leaning over a chair—a *fretted* victim—a *wild* spark—and a

‘Young *gamefome* fair-one,—the whose hand

Pats the sleek face of yonder silken fool,

Ton emmet in embroidery.’—

— ‘*kind soul!*—she *taps* his cheek,’

Another lady is introduced, of a different character from this yielding fair one.

' Good heaven ! what *ruffling rapid* she is that ?'

She wins money at play ; and

' Sweeps thro' the rooms, and cries out victory !'

But ' indignant fortune shifts',—she ' loses the conqueror's pride, and *sinks* to bed.'

Defective rhymes.

' The "darkness visible" of *dawn*
Dimly proclaims the dubious *morn*.'

Those with no variation in the sound.

' When the time hangs heavy on us,
Sol disdaining to shine on us.'

Those which do not rhyme at all.

' When the conquering card I hold,
Smart I throw it on the board.'

Absolute nonsense.—Of this the *Ode to the Sun* affords many examples. One, however, will serve to shew, that the brilliancy of the subject has not tended to dissipate the obscurity of the author's ideas.

' When bursting forth from sealing night,
The infant's eye first feels the light,
Uncertain is its day ;
Some human frost may haply come,
And drop it in th' oblivious tomb,
To quench its short-liv'd ray.'

Can any thing like sense be extracted from *the day of an eye bursting from night, and human frost coming accidentally, and dropping it in a tomb to quench it* ?—Tired with a harvest that has afforded nothing but tares, and of which a considerable gleanings is still left in the same productive field, cycloped PRIZE POEMS, we gladly relinquish the desperate hook ; and to put the reader as well as ourselves in better humour, for our late extracts, if he is ' smit with the love of sacred song,' cannot contribute to sweeten his temper, we shall quote a passage of a very different complexion. It is the opening of a poem addressed to the prince of Wales : the whole, with a few trifling exceptions, is written in the same manner.

' While blest'd with infant innocence and truth,
Those fair attendants of ingenious youth,
While yet in embrio each idea lies,
And in the soul her opening passions rise ;
While dawning reason ripens in her mine,
And all the senses bow at nature's shrine ;

Amidst

Amidst the bounties of superior wealth,
The joys which flow from fortune and from health ;
While crowds obsequious on thy beck attend,
And a free people, fraught with incense, bend ;
While courtly Adulation, false and dear,
Pours her delicious poison in thine ear ;
While servile bards, in mercenary praise,
The honied period turn a thousand ways.
Surrounded thus by all that can inspire,
Bliss, passion, pleasure, frolic, and desire,
O let the free-born Muse, with loyal zeal,
Boldly declare what flatterers wou'd conceal !

The two last volumes are composed of *Moral Tales*, and *Essays* on various subjects. The latter, though by no means remarkable for depth of reason, or vigour of sentiment, are not deficient in ease and perspicuity. There is commonly a pleasing vivacity, sometimes a little dashed with affectation, in Mr. Pratt's mode of telling a story. That of 'the Dog in the Tombs,' which is given for fact, is exceedingly remarkable, and deserves farther attention. If the style in which it is narrated had been more simple, it would have been more affecting. This observation might be applied to many of the Tales : they are, however, not destitute of merit ; and the younger mind particularly, from their perusal, may reap instruction and amusement.

Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Vol. LXXV. For the Year 1785. Part I. 4to. 7s. 6d. L. Davis.

THIS part of the annual volume is in many respects important ; but the value of the papers will more fully appear from the analysis, than from any general introductory observations.

Article I. An Account of an artificial Spring. By Erasmus Darwin, M. D. F. R. S.—This article evinces the author's judgment and ingenuity. The water in his well was impure ; but in the neighbourhood, on higher ground, it was remarkably good. Dr. Darwin, therefore, bored through the bed of marl, under which the old water arose, and arrived at a lower stratum, from whence issued a spring resembling that in the neighbourhood. The mechanical contrivances to prevent the impure water from debasing the inferior spring, cannot easily be abridged ; but they are simple, ingenious, and were completely effectual. The reasoning too is just and accurate.

Art. II. An Account of an English Bird of the Genus *Motacilla*, supposed to be hitherto unnoticed by British Ornithologists,

thologists. By the Rev. John Lightfoot, M. A. F. R. S.—This appears to be a new species of motacilla, and is very accurately described by Mr. Lightfoot, under the name of *marundinacea*. The *turdus arundinaceus minimus* of Sepp. very much resembles this bird, and is probably the same; though, as it is ill-coloured, and not very accurately described, some little differences are observable. The structure of its nest is curious.

‘But to return to the nest I was going to describe. It is composed externally of dry stalks of grass, lined, for the most part, with the flowery tufts of the common reed, or *arundo vallisoria*, but sometimes with small dead grasses, and a few black horse-hairs to cover them. This nest is usually found suspended or fastened on, like a hammock, between three or four stalks of reeds, below the panicles of flowers, in such a manner that the stalks run through the sides of the nests at nearly equal distances; or, to speak more properly, the nest is tied on to the reeds with dead grass, and sometimes (as being more eligible when it can be had) even with thread and pack-thread, emulating the work of a sempstress, as was the case of the nest exhibited in the drawing. The bird, however, though generally, does not always confine her building to the support of reeds; sometimes she fixes it on to the branches of the water-dock; and, in one instance only (that here delineated), it was found fastened to the trifurcated branch of of a syringa bush, or philadelphus, growing in a garden hedge by the river side.’

This little bird is not very frequent, but seems not to be confined to one part of England only: it is probably, however, migratory.

Art. III. An Account of Morne Garou, a Mountain in the Island of St. Vincent, with a Description of the Volcano on its Summit. By Mr. James Anderson, Surgeon.—The Readiness and resolution with which our traveller conquered the obstacles to his expedition, are commendable; and he was rewarded by a singular, and, to a philosophic eye, a curious sight. But volcanos have been often described; and this, in St. Vincent, affords nothing very singular. Though many of the Antilles are the hills of an inundated continent, some of them are undoubtedly volcanic. St. Vincent and St. Lucia are both so.

Art. IV. A Supplement to the Third Part of the Paper on the Summation of Infinite Series, in the Philosophical Transactions for 1782. By the Rev. S. Vince, M. A.—This article is incapable of abridgement.

Art. V. Description of a Plant yielding *Asa foetida*. By John Hope, M. D. F. R. S.—The industry of Dr. Hope is well known; and the medical world are much obliged to him
for

for the very exact and valuable description of the *ferula asa foetida*. Dr. Hope observes, that Kämpfer's description differs from the appearance of the plant, in his botanical garden; and the president, in defence of Kämpfer, alledges that the Persian plant may have been a different species from that at Edinburgh, since Kämpfer's accuracy has not hitherto been impeached. The leaf only is different, the kind of the umbel is the same; and Kämpfer has expressly told us, that he had not seen it in flower. (Vide *Amœnitates Exoticæ Fasc. III. p. 538*). These circumstances, in our opinion, fully justify the suspicion of the learned president. Dr. Hope received it from Dr. Guthrie, at Petersburg. Every part of the plant pours out a rich milky juice; and the smell of garlick is sensible at the distance of several feet. It grows in the open air without protection, and may be a valuable object of commerce.

Art. VI. Catalogue of Double Stars. By William Herschel, F. R. S.—This is a mark of the great attention, and astonishing address of Mr. Herschel, as an observer. The double stars are divided into six classes.

Art. VII. Observations of a new variable Star. By Edward Pigott, Esq.—The variable star, which is the subject of this paper, is the γ Antinoi. Its period is 7 days, 4^h. 38'.

“Hitherto the opinion of astronomers concerning the changes of Algol's light seem to be very unsettled; at least none are universally adopted, though various are the hypotheses to account for it; such, as supposing the star of some other than a spherical form, or a large body revolving round it, or with several dark spots or small bright ones on its surface, also giving an inclination to its axis, &c. though most of these conjectures with regard to Algol be attended with difficulties, some of them combined do, I think, account for the variation of γ Antinoi.”

The methods of fixing, with more exactness than usual, the magnitude of stars, are very ingenious; but we fear they cannot be practised with success. We see several obstacles to them, besides those mentioned by Mr. Pigott.

Art. VIII. Astronomical Observations. By M. Francis de Zach.—These observations relate to an eclipse of the moon, on March 18, 1783, to the vernal equinox, Jupiter's satellites, and to a problem that occurs in computing the orbits of comets. To these are added, some observations on the transit of Mercury, November 12, 1783. It is not possible to abridge observations of this kind, for any purpose of information. We shall only add, from the last subject, that the diameter of Mercury, when over the sun, seemed to be 8". 137, certainly less than 9": it is usually reckoned 12".

Art. IX.

Art. IX. Observations of a new variable Star. By John Goodricke, Esq.—Another variable star. This is β Lyræ, and its period is said to be twelve days, nineteen hours. From the particular observations, it appears somewhat less.

* As β Lyræ is a quadruped star, N^o 3, of Mr. Herschel's fifth class of double stars. I was desirous to see if any of the small stars near it would be affected by its different changes; but they seemed not to suffer any alteration, either when it was at its greatest or at its least brightness. I attended to this the more particularly because the loss of the star's light was very considerable, and the phenomenon seemed to be occasioned by a rotation on the star's axis, under a supposition that there are several large dark spots upon its body, and that its axis is inclined to the earth's orbit.

Art. X. On the Motion of Bodies affected by Friction. By the Rev. S. Vince, A. M.—The object of this very ingenious author was to determine

1st, Whether friction be a uniformly retarding force.

2^{dly}, The quantity of friction:

3^{dly}, Whether the friction varies in proportion to the pressure or weight.

4^{thly}, Whether the friction be the same on which ever of its surfaces a body moves.

It is well known how much philosophers have differed on this subject, and experiments have been scarcely more conclusive. Those of Mr. Vince are less exceptionable than many others, though some doubts may still be raised. They are, however, inconsiderable; and his conclusions may be safely looked on as a very near approximation to truth. In the first experiments it was found, that in hard bodies, friction really was an uniformly retarding force: When the bodies were covered with cloth, woollen, &c. the retarding force increased with the velocity; when covered with paper, it was again uniform. From the event of these experiments, the quantity of friction is easily determined by the laws of motion.

To determine the third question, the experiments are very properly directed, and it appears very conclusively, that the quantity of friction increases in a less ratio than the quantity of matter, or weight of the body. This determination entirely decides the last question; for if the quantity of friction increases in a less ratio than the weight, there must be less friction on any given portion of the smaller surface. But, as this opinion was very different from that generally received, it was put to the test of experiment; and it appears very clearly that, with a given weight, the smallest surface has the least friction. Mr. Vince thence shews the fallacy of his predecessors' experiments;

ments; and, as the proportional increase of friction, to the increase of weight, was different in different bodies, he purposes to examine the subject by future experiments, to determine the law of the increase. The paper concludes with five propositions to establish a theory on the former principles: Even to mention these more generally, would lead us too far.

[To be continued.]

FOREIGN ARTICLES.

Histoire de l'Academie Royale des Sciences Année 1783, avec les Memoires de Mathematique & de Physique pour la même Année, Paris, 4to. 1784.

AS we have lately added to our Journal an account of the more remarkable and useful foreign publications, it would be inexcusable if we omitted the public transactions of the Royal Academy, and the Royal Society of Medicine. The object of the former institution is well known; and though we now again resume it, after a long series of successive publications, yet we need not go back to explain its origin, or to trace its progress. We purpose to follow the academy in their ensuing volumes; and where it may be necessary, shall explain any particular subject, by an account of what has been done in the former parts of this extensive series. The volume before us is not the last; but accounts only of that published about a month since, have reached England. We shall not fail to attend to it as soon as we receive it.

In the department of General Physics, the first article is by M. Tillet, on the proportional Prices of Wheat, Meal, and Bread. This subject indeed belongs rather to oeconomics than to physics; and we need not enlarge on it, because though some of the facts may be applied generally, yet a great part of the memoir is local.

The second essay, on the Comparison of Combustibles, is nearly of the same kind; but it is the work of Mr. Lavoisier, and deserves attention. He examined the heat produced, by the time which a given quantity of any combustible would support the ebullition of a given quantity of water, to which fresh water was continually added, to supply what was lost by evaporation; or, secondly, by the quantity of the combustible employed. Each method produced the same results: fossil charcoal was the strongest, charred wood next in order, and then wood itself.

The state of every body, with respect to its principles, is attended with a change of its state of temperature and electricity. In separating inflammable and nitrous air from metals, and fixed air from chalk, the remainder acquires a very sensible

sible negative electricity. Water in evaporation is almost always positive. This is the only memoir on the subject of electricity.

In lighting public theatres, Mr. Lavoisier recommends elliptical reverberators in the ceiling, that no light may be lost, and the view of the stage not impeded.

In Anatomy, the first memoir, by Mr. Vicq d'Azyr, contains a description of the brain, spinal marrow, and origin of the nerves, in man. This will be a most important work: it is now only begun, and is illustrated by plates; but it cannot be abridged. In the future Numbers, the brains of different animals will be described. In Italy, consumptions are considered as infectious, and no body, to whom this disease has proved fatal, is allowed to be dissected in the public schools. Mr. Portal, with much reason, opposes this opinion, and contends, that the complaint is rather hereditary than infectious. He makes a distinction between accidental and hereditary phthisis, which we believe to be just: in the first the bronchial glands are primarily affected, and the pulmonary ones in consequence: the hereditary phthisis probably first appears with an affection of the glands of the lungs. The same author opposes the usual distinction of apoplexy into sanguine and serous. He very properly urges physicians to overlook it, and treat the patient according to the circumstances in which they find him.

On the Natural History of Animals, M. Daubenton describes the trachea arteria of birds. This memoir we have already noticed in our review of Mr. Latham's Synopsis. In the swan the trachea passes through the sternum; in cranes it rises, and is turned back through this bone twice, so that it has four curvatures. In the Paragua, an American bird, it passes through the whole length of the sternum, and rises to the top of it again, before it passes into the lungs. In the stone-bird, so called from a hard excrescence at the beginning of its beak (the cushew bird of Edwards) the trachea rises and sinks twice on the outside of the same bone. This configuration is not to assist the voice, for herons and cranes are not remarkable in this respect; it is not to facilitate their diving, for the stone-bird never dives. We must wait for the explanation, till we have received more observations on the subject.

In the Botanical department, Messrs. Fongeroux and Daubenton correct a common error, that some very old timber work is formed of chesnut, which was on that account supposed to be formerly more common than at present, as well as larger. They show, that it is composed of a peculiar species of oak, very hard, durable, and uncommon, but of slow growth.

In Mineralogy, Mr. Gentil gives the observations suggested by long journeys and extensive observations, on the formation of mountains. The principal novelty, in this memoir, is, that corresponding angles between two neighbouring mountains are never found, but where the valley seems to have been formed

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by the course of a river. The inclination of the strata, he tells us, is sometimes so regular, that it may be employed to measure the height of the mountain with tolerable exactness.

The next memoir contains the observations on mines of coal inflamed by accident, by the imprudence of the miners, or heat raised by spontaneous fermentation. The author describes several of these, which burp as long as any fuel remains. When a brook has been conducted into the mine, to extinguish the fire, whose heat is very sensible on the surface, it occasions a little eruption, the nature of which we now very well understand, and shall explain in another part of this article.

Some Miscellaneous observations follow. The first is on calces of iron, found in the schistus that lies over coal. They resemble precipitations of that metal by acids, and one, produced by M. Sage, was like the precipitate obtained by the saccharine. The second relates to the means of making fetid bitumens aromatic: asphaltum, exposed to a strong sun, in a close vessel (we suppose of glass), resembles in its odour benzoin. In the last volume, M. Fougereux described sulphur found in the rakings near the gate Saint Antoine: the ground was that on which a slaughter-house formerly stood. M. Morand found the same in the ruins of a house situated near an old sewer.

The aventurine, in M. Sage's opinion, is a kind of quartz. It is chiefly made up of small grains of this stone, and to it owes its peculiar property, which is found too in some species of feld-spath. M. Daubenton thinks that the stone, formerly called aventurine, was rather of the latter species.

The Chemical part of this volume is very interesting, and we have often had occasion to hint at it; we must therefore rest on it with unusual care. In the first article, 'On Vegetable Analysis,' count de Milli explains the method by which he intends to analyse vegetable substances, and afterwards to extend it to the animal kingdom. There is a candour and generosity in his conduct in explaining the method, which shews that he is more solicitous for the advantage of science than for the honour of discovery. He now only explains his apparatus, and may be followed by chemists of different nations. We lately, in our review of Fourcroy's Lectures, mentioned how little we were really acquainted with animal substances; but we recommended an attention to the spontaneous changes, and an examination of the different parts, rather than to the more violent separation by means of heat: we know that in this field a rich harvest of discovery may be reaped. The count's plan is not, however, very different. He employs a lamp furnace, by which he gives the substance to be examined a constant heat, from the temperature of the air to that of boiling water. The degree is known by the number of threads in the wick, which must be near, but not very exactly reach to the truth. In this apparatus the substances underwent the different fermentations;

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a part of each, in its different states, is distilled by a given heat; and the products of this heat are separated by properly stopping the distillation. This method has obviously many advantages, and it is said to be even superior to M. Turgot's, by which the volatile principles are separated without any, or, at most, very little alteration of the remainder.

The memoir, which follows in the historical part, for it must be understood that the order of the memoirs themselves differs, is that of Messrs. Lavoisier and Meunier, on the Decomposition of Water. In our Fifty-eighth Volume, pages 250 and 414, we gave a distinct and copious account of the labours of Mr. Cavendish and Mr. Watt, who preceded M. Lavoisier in this discovery. We must not now repeat it, but refer to these articles for what has been done in England. They open an extensive prospect, beautifully adorned, and views that Newton never guessed at. M. Lavoisier found that the water arising from the combustion of pure and inflammable air was equal in weight to the airs employed: in this instance he was more successful than Mr. Cavendish; for in his experiments four-fifths of the pure air remained. In many other trials something similar occurred: when, for instance, filings of steel, mixed with water, were put under a glass, on a surface of mercury, a considerable quantity of inflammable air was produced; the steel was increased in weight, and the water diminished in quantity. We need not explain these appearances to chemists, who will immediately see reason to suspect that the inflammable air was produced from the water. We shall mention that water is produced in Dr. Priestley's experiment of reviving calces of metals by inflammable air. All the same effects, though less completely, we are informed follow the reduction of metals in vitriolic acid air.

It is observed, that aerostatic machines, and reflections on the means of supplying them with inflammable air, first suggested the principal experiment of these chemists. We will now owe our obligations to them. Water fell by drops from a funnel on a gun barrel heated red-hot, and kept in that state by a constant fire; the consequence was, a copious production of inflammable air. The inside of the gun was lined with a black glittering substance, not malleable, which, when reduced to powder, appeared a true martial æthiops. But this was not sufficient: M. Lavoisier wanted to know the weight of the water which was lost in the experiment, that of the inflammable air, and the increase of weight in the gun barrel. The sum of these ought to be equal to the weight of the water employed. Besides, the external part of the barrel might have been calcined, and they could not be too exact. They then tried to extinguish red-hot metals in water, and to preserve the air; in this way they found inflammable air produced only by iron and zinc, the only metals which furnish it in solution with acids. A copper tube was therefore used instead of the iron one,

one, and pieces of iron, weighed with the greatest exactness, put into it. When the experiment was tried with these variations, and allowance made for the water which escaped, the weight of inflammable air, added to the increase of the weight of the iron, was exactly equal to that of the water originally added.

This theory, he observes, explains many important phenomena. Vegetables, nourished with water, breathe vital air; the inflammable part of the water is preserved, and gives colour and inflammability to the plant. We may add, that sickly vegetables are yellow, and these are expressly found to produce phlogisticated air. In burning spirit of wine, it is observed, that we can collect a greater quantity of water than we lose of spirit; that is, if two ounces of spirit are burned, and half an ounce only remains, more than an ounce and half of water may be collected. This water, our author thinks, arises from the union of pure air, which serves for the burning, united to the inflammable air of the spirit. 'We may suppose then, that in the spirituous fermentation of a solution of sugar in water, the vital air, one of the component parts of the water, uniting with the coaly matter (we should call it phlogistic) of the sugar, forms the fixed air, which issues so abundantly from the fermenting matter; while the inflammable air, with the same principles, forms spirit. In fact, we find that spirit of wine in burning, and consequently combining with pure air, produces fixed air; a proof that it contains the same substance which in the sugar contributed to form the same acid.'

We have given these experiments at some length: though we think the conclusions highly probable, something is yet necessary to be added. Some of the doubts, which might have arisen, are, we think, obviated by Mr. Watt and Mr. Cavendish's experiments; but some remain. It is remarkable that this inflammable air appeared only when iron or zinc were employed; and as we procure this air from these metals in other experiments, it seems probable that it is rather furnished by the metals themselves than by the water. It may indeed be alleged that iron has greater attraction to vital air than any other metal, since it extracts some portion of this air from the atmosphere; but we have no evidence of the same power in zinc. If we reverse the language, we may allow that they have both a more powerful attraction for fixed air than any other perfect metal, and would consequently be more capable of decomposing water, if one of its component parts was fixed air; but, as in many instances, the language rather than the facts differ, we may perhaps with safety transfer the analogy. Manganese has a more powerful attraction to fixed air than even iron; black lead probably still more. We think that experiments with these substances might contribute to elucidate the subject.

The historian of the Royal Academy observes, that M. Lavoisier's theory is not generally adopted; yet he adds, that few chem-

chemical theories are founded on more simple or more conclusive experiments. Light and heat, he observes, seem to be neglected in the operation, and these are either combined with water, or separated from the airs by combustion; so consequently we must either acknowledge that water is formed of these two fluids, minus the quantity of light and heat; or that each of these fluids is water joined with light and heat. But, as no experiments have been made on this subject, he thinks the balance inclines towards M. Lavoisier.

As it is impossible to finish this volume without extending our article too far, we shall defer the remainder to a more convenient opportunity.

Memoires Historiques, Politiques Et Oeconomiques, sur les Revolutions Anglaises dans l'Indostan. Par J. A. Pallebot. 8vo. Utrecht.

AT a time when we have so many authors at home, who aim at degrading the rank, and lessening the consequence of our country, it is with great pleasure we find ourselves considered as important by foreigners. M. Pallebot assures the public, that the English possessions in India are sufficient to change the politics of Europe, and earnestly invites all other nations to join together, and 'crush the evil in the bud.' This author claims our attention on the subject of the affairs of India, from his long residence in various parts of the country, and the knowledge which his rank and employments there must necessarily have procured. He professes to take things 'ab ovo,' but is not always original. In his account of the Bramins, he transcribes from Hollwell, whose name he industriously conceals, even in describing an event where he was a great sufferer, and mentioning a mausoleum which he built in consequence of it. The civil history is taken from Orme, the Life of Nadir Shah, and other English authors: we can often discover the particular passages. In the narration of these events, with which the author may be supposed to be personally acquainted, he is very bitter against the English, and attributes much of our success to bribery; but if there be a crime in offering a bribe, there is surely a meanness in accepting it.

After making proper allowances for the envy with which he beholds the prosperity of the English in India, and the manifest partiality in favour of his own countrymen, these Historical Memoirs may be read with great pleasure, and contain many important observations.—But we must take notice of some absurdities in his account of a late noble general. We shall extract the passage. 'Loaded with the spoils of Asia, he returns to Europe, where, finding no farther scope for his infernal Machiavelism, his genius, recoiling on itself, soon becomes a prey to the avenging furies. His imagination, troubled by the reproaches of his conscience, sees nothing but mas-

massacres, prisons, and spectres. Eager to fly from them, to fly from himself, he goes from England to France, runs from France to Italy, returns to England, where the sight of the tragedy of Montezuma, represented at Bath, completes his horror, and renders the light of the day horrible. In this affecting prospect of the horrible cruelties committed in America by the Spaniards, who conquered it, he recognized his actions and exploits in Asia. The imprecations of Montezuma on the stage seemed to strike him with curses in his box. He starts from it in terror, hastens precipitately to London, orders his carriage for a journey to France, and almost in the same moment seizing a knife from his cabinet &c.'—

Though we allow the force and pathos of this description, yet we must observe, that no tragedy of the name of Montezuma has been represented many years. That of Dryden has been long neglected. There was an opera of that name, but it could not be performed at Bath; and the artificial distress of an opera singer was never, we believe, sufficient to drive any man to despair. If our author's information was not better on the affairs of India, much dependence cannot be placed on his accounts.

The following extract from his Prospectus is no improper specimen of his style and manner. Having allowed that the French were the first who aimed at a territorial revenue; that this alarmed the English, and produced the contest which, after the wars in 1755 and 1762, ended in the enormous empire established by us on the ruins of the Mogul, he proceeds:

'This formidable Colossus, from the bosom of Asia, threatens Europe, which, by a strange fascination, seems to look on the vast mass with indifference. Is the restless genius, which used to preside over the balance of Europe, enchanted?—or does it reckon the weight of Asia, in the hands of England, as of no consequence? What! the contests for the possession of a small province in Italy, Germany, or Flanders, have more than once raised a flame in Europe, which has trembled for its liberty, and cried out against the aspiring prince for his ambition to attain an universal monarchy! and when England engrosses, one after another, the kingdoms of Asia, the nations of Europe, with a listlessness unworthy of their dignity, leave their common rival to run his race, without an obstacle, when their ruin is the prize that it seeks, and which it is almost ready to seize. Shall an age, distinguished by revolutions so important, pass away without our perceiving those events, which will render it an object of attention to the eyes of posterity?

'Let us rouse, for it is time, and guard against the surprises which England prepares, under the veil which she spreads, with anxious concern, over usurpations already completed, and others yet in agitation. It is this deceitful veil which I mean to tear in pieces. After having employed twenty-eight years in Asia, observing and opposing the designs of

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the English, I bring to Europe the information which I have acquired, and I hope to open its eyes to danger by a work intended to raise its disgust against the insatiable greediness of England. When America escaped from her, she threw herself on Asia, and, if she had not been opposed by France, would have obtained Indostan, from which, however, I know she would have been completely expelled, if the war had continued two or three years more. Be it far from me to rekindle its flames! But if the love of peace, always so desirable for the interests of humanity, opposes the application of violent remedies, which in the political constitution, as well as the human, are sometimes alone capable of suddenly restoring the equilibrium, let us at least employ those secrets of art, which, acting more gently, and not less certainly, can by winding channels restore the vigour of the constitution without any inconvenient stock: in a word, without troubling the repose of Europe, let us profit by the divisions of Asia, which, judiciously directed by our intrigues, will be sufficient to destroy, in this part of the world, the construction of those chains, which the English are there forging for Europe.

We shall make no comments on the declaration which we have transcribed; it is a proof of the good intentions of some of our neighbours. They ought to be made public, in order to be guarded against; but, before this time, the effects have sufficiently explained the views and designs of those appointed to conduct the machinations.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

P O L I T I C A L.

The Policy of the Tax upon Retailers considered: or, a Plea in Favour of the Manufacturers. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Wilkie.

THE author of this pamphlet examines the tax upon retailers in a new light, and endeavours to evince that it has a tendency to prove advantageous to the public. He begins with citing the authorities of political and commercial writers in support of the opinion, that in a populous and manufacturing country, retailers ought to be considered as a detrimental class of idlers; and consequently, that the reduction of their number, by some judicious regulation, would operate towards promoting the national wealth and prosperity. He is of opinion that retailers ought to be considered as a detrimental class of idlers in a double respect: first, as withdrawing their industry from the general stock, and secondly, as deriving their subsistence not from foreign countries by means of trade, but from the industry of their fellow-subjects. Proceeding upon the supposition that there are in the whole kingdom two hundred thou-

thousand retailers, and that one hundred thousand of them were, by a judicious tax, to be reduced to apply themselves to manual labour, they might, he thinks, be computed to gain a shilling a day at an average, which, allowing three hundred working days in the year, amounts to the sum of one million five hundred thousand pounds. This, he observes, would be a great addition to the annual national stock, or a real augmentation of the general wealth. But at present, the more they gain, it is so much the worse for the nation, as those gains are chiefly derived from their industrious fellow-subjects, who are consequently less able to sustain other burdens.

For ascertaining the immense sums which are levied upon the people by retailers, he supposes the two hundred thousand retailers to gain by their present business, at an average, two shillings a day, and reckoning, as before, three hundred shop-days in the year, this will annually amount to six millions of pounds. But this medium profit being in his opinion computed far too low, he thinks that the annual sum levied by the retailers upon their fellow-subjects, may be justly estimated at above ten millions. He is therefore of opinion, that the tax upon retailing shop-keepers will be found to have the most salutary effect of any financial regulation introduced within these twenty years.

The author next starts a question, whether these pretended oppressed retailers, as he calls them, are not themselves the oppressors. He observes, that though the nation at present enjoys profound peace, though the seas are now open, freights lowered, and insurance diminished, yet many articles in retail-shops are still sold at war prices.

Exorbitant as are the retailer's profits in London, according to the author's representation, they are yet more enormous in the country-towns, where many retailers furnish a bad commodity at a higher price than a better commodity may be bought for in the capital, or in some of the great cities. He thinks, that were the country shopkeepers to deal fairly with their customers, they ought to furnish as good a commodity, and as cheap, as could be purchased in the capital or elsewhere; making an allowance of a small advance for the additional charge of carriage; though this additional charge, he thinks, is more than counterbalanced by the lowness of rents, and the cheapness of living in the country. The author, at what he considers as a moderate computation, estimates these overcharges of the retailers to exceed two millions of pounds annually; an effect which he imputes chiefly to the too great number of retailers throughout the kingdom. For he observes, that where consumption is bounded, the same profits that will afford a comfortable subsistence to one hundred thousand people, will not maintain two hundred thousand.

The author afterwards considers what would be the consequence, were the present number of retailers diminished one-

half. Supposing the number of purchasers, and the quantity of commodities purchased, to remain the same as at present, he observes that the retailers who sold those commodities would, one with another, have double the business; consequently if they now can live upon their profits, they would then live equally well were they to lower their profits one-half; and in the same proportion that those profits were lowered, would the purchasers have commodities cheaper. Therefore, supposing the sum total of the retailer's annual profits to be ten millions, were their number diminished one-half, they would be just as rich with an annual profit of five millions, and the community would be eased of an annual burden of five millions.

Our author's opinion, that the number of shopkeepers throughout the kingdom is too great, we believe, will not be disputed; but we cannot so readily agree with him, when he imputes the dearness of commodities in the country universally to this cause. For we are of opinion, that in many parts, this dearness proceeds from the want of competition. With respect to the political operation of the retail-tax, in the light in which it is viewed by the author, there appears no probability that it can prove, in any degree, so efficacious as he has endeavoured to represent; and we think, that should it tend to the immediate production of those effects which he considers as its natural result, the tax might justly be deemed yet more oppressive than it has hitherto been considered, even by its warmest opponents. The reduction of the number of retailers in the capital, and in large cities, provided that no immediate distress ensued, and population was not ultimately affected, might, we doubt not, prove an advantage to the public. But we shudder to think of the consequence which the author supposes, that one hundred thousand persons, accustomed, as he represents, to habits of idleness, and unacquainted with the practice of any manual art, should be driven from their shops, where they have hitherto maintained their families, to seek for subsistence by a recourse to occupations of which we must suppose them to be incapable. Our author's idea of the operation of the tax, however, we can only consider as a hypothetical speculation in politics. Its immediate efficacy towards the purpose he mentions would affect so great a number of individuals as to prove a national calamity; and if retailers can at present live by the profit of their shops, the opinion seems not very probable, that any great diminution of this class of inhabitants will ensue, as a necessary consequence of the tax in question.

Speech of George Dallas, Esq. Member of the Committee appointed by the British Inhabitants residing in Bengal, for the Purpose of preparing Petitions to his Majesty and both Houses of Parliament, praying Redress against an Act of Parliament, &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

This Speech was delivered at a meeting held at the Theatre, in Calcutta, on the 25th of July last. Mr. Dallas is a member
of

of the committee appointed by the British inhabitants residing in Bengal, for the purpose of preparing petitions to his majesty and both houses of parliament, praying redress against the late act relative to the affairs of India. He describes this act as pregnant with mischief of the most alarming nature with regard to the liberty and property of British subjects, who return with fortunes from the East. That it is even a direct violation of Magna Charta, and tends to the establishment of a despotism equally odious with that of the star-chamber. After painting this subject in strong colours, Mr. Dallas proceeds to suggest the pernicious consequences which may result from the operation of the act, should it not be repealed. But he professes to entertain the utmost confidence that the British legislature will comply with the prayer of the petition; and for this purpose, he is not a little flattering in his encomiums on some of the principal characters in the nation. The Speech is undoubtedly plausible and animated; but discovers a juvenility of declamation, intermixed with classical apostrophes not perfectly suitable, we may suppose, to a promiscuous audience in the East Indies.

Subjoined is an Appendix, containing the Proceedings of the Meeting held at the Theatre in Calcutta; with the Speech of Philip Yonge, Esq. the Sheriff, to the same purpose as that of Mr. Dallas; and the Resolutions which were proposed, and unanimously agreed to, for carrying the object of the meeting into effect,

P O E T R Y.

Translation of Huntingford's First Collection of Monostrophics.
8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly.

We cannot compliment this gentleman on the success of his undertaking. The last poem is thus rendered :

‘ O Greece! in ancient times so much admir’d,
Who both in arms and arts have borne the sway;
With poetry and music first inspir’d;
Who foster’d heroes with thy genial ray:
Favour’d of heav’n! bless’d land! I thee adore;
Accept my song—farewell—I say no more.’

Surely there never was a more ‘lame and impotent conclusion.’ Yet, flat and insipid as the two last lines are, the preceding ones have no right to triumph over their associates’ defects. The first has no kind of excellency to boast of, the second is ungrammatical, the third not quite intelligible (as we know not who were inspir’d), and the fourth nonsensical; for to ‘foster heroes with a ray’ is a similar absurdity to that in the Rehearsal, of ‘grasping a storm in the eye of reason.’ Most of the poems are undoubtedly rendered in a style rather superior to that we have quoted, but not in such a manner as to confer any additional celebrity on the Monostrophics.

The Exodus, a Poem. By the Rev. Samuel Hayes, M. A. 4to.
2s. Wilkie.

We first meet with some good advice addressed to ambitious monarchs, but such as has been given over and over again, to very little purpose, time immemorial. The only peculiar circumstance in this part of the poem is, that the riches of those kings is supposed to be chiefly employed in ornamenting their tables, and that their soldiers stand around their thrones in order of battle.

‘ Though wealth on wealth be in your coffers stor’d,
Exhaustless fund to deck the splendid board;
While round your thrones the marshall’d legions stand,
Obsequious slaves to ev’ry fell command.’

Many rhetorical flowers are as conspicuous in the present as the last * performance of Mr. Hayes. We are told that

————— throughout the land
Infectious vermin rankle.’

Miriam, watching Moses ‘ wrapt in verdant sedge,’ and ‘ observant of the Fates,’ sees Thermutis going to bathe herself, or, according to the following elegant periphrasis,

————— in the refreshing flood
To check the fervour of the throbbing blood.’

After we are told that ‘ the whirlwind sweeps along the sky,’ we expect in the next line some terrible instance of its effects:

‘ And the parch’d dust *distorts* the trembling eye.’

Instead of houses overthrown, or forests laid waste, the consequence is merely such as the traveller may experience any summer day on the Islington turnpike; for we cannot suppose the eye would be more ‘ distorted’ by Egyptian than English dust. Moses

‘ —arms with faith the fluctuating sense.’

His rod, instead of assuming, ‘ caught a serpent’s figure.’ It likewise ‘ breaks tyrannic force.’ Pharaoh reprehends Aaron for ‘ his vain parade of words, and worshipping not an ideal God, but an ‘ ideal name;’ a mode of adoration not very intelligible.

Instead of proscribing Moses, he

‘ —the bold offender’s life proclaim’d.’

The Israelites are promis’d the ‘ hospitable plains of Canaan,’ a country of which they acquired possession by force of arms. Notwithstanding these defects and blunders, there are several passages in the poem of a better kind, though not of sufficient merit to intitle the author to a freehold on Parnassus; but the long lease he has taken of the Kissingbury estate will probably atone for that disappointment.

The Rolliad. Part the Second. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Davies.

A Second Part of these Criticisms are now collected from their fugitive state, and they appear with the same advantages of sprightly wit, and acute discriminated satire, but are deformed with the same virulence and ill-nature. We now lose Merlin; but the Saxon drummer, the redoubtable spouse of Shiptonia, of the great mother of the Rollos, is supposed to possess in his dying moments, like all other dying heroes, the gift of prophecy. He describes a future house of lords, into which a future Rolle appears ambitious to gain admission. Every reader will understand the following lines.

‘ Learn, thoughtless Debbeige, now no more a youth,
The woes unnumber’d that encompass truth,
Nor of experience, nor of knowledge vain,
Mock the chimæras of a sea-sick brain :
Oh ! learn on happier terms with him to live,
Who ne’er knew twice the weakness to forgive !
Then should his grace some vast expedient find,
To govern tempests, and controul the wind ;
Should he like great Canute forbid the wave
T’ approach his presence, or his foot to leave ;
Construct some bastion, or devise some mound,
The world’s wide limits to encompass round ;
Rear a redoubt, that to the stars should rise,
And lift himself, like Typhon, to the skies ;
Or should the mightier scheme engage his soul,
To raise a platform on the northern pole,
With fofs, with rampart, stick, and stone, and clay,
To build a breast-work on the milky way ;
Or to protect his sovereign’s blest abode,
Bid numerous batteries guard the turnpike road ;
Lest foul invasion in disguise approach,
Or treason lurk within the Dover coach :
Oh, let the wiser duty then be thine,
Thy skill, thy science, judgment to resign ;
With patient ear the high-wrapt tale attend,
Nor snarl at fancies which no skill can mend.
So shall thy comforts with thy days increase,
And all thy last, unlike thy first, be peace ;
No rude courts martial shall thy fame decry,
But half-pay plenty all thy wants supply.’

This is sufficient for a specimen. Next follows a political eclogue called ‘ the Lyars,’ in which a classical reader will perceive many passages of Virgil’s third Bucolic, parodied with much spirit and wit : the political reader will treat it according to his own opinion of the parties ; but every friend to propriety and decorum will be disgusted with the grossness of the abuse. It was plainly written before the last New Year’s Ode, or the following line would not have appeared :

‘Or Warton’s odes with justice claim the bays.’

It is but justice to acknowledge, that the strength, the spirit, and true poetical ardour in Mr. Warton’s last production, have seldom animated a similar performance.

The Epithalamium on the Marriage of Mr. Elliot with lady Harriot Pitt, is spirited, but, as usual, too virulently satirical. We shall select the least offensive lines.

‘*Trio, by Lord Lonsdale, Lord Elliot, and the Duke of Northumberland.*

From boroughs, grand the things that grow ;

From mines, divine the streams that flow.

Hail Cornwall, richer than Potosi !

Hail Cumberland, a fairer quarter !

Hail Liskeard, Appleby, and Launceston,

Hail Cockermouth ! and hail Beeralston !

May no rude hand invade our charter,

—Titles to buy, and burgage rights to barter.’—

On the whole, we must repeat our regret, that brilliant talents are so flagrantly misapplied ; but it will be some compensation, if disappointed ambition exhausts its fury in these ‘wordy wars,’ and the spirit which might destroy a kingdom, is contented with only abusing its governors.

Poems on various Subjects, by Ann Thomas. 4to. 3s. Law.

Mrs. Thomas, it seems, is the widow of an officer in the royal navy ; and in several of her poems she celebrates events during the last war. He would be an ungenerous critic who should discover severity of remark towards the relief of an officer that fought in defence of his country.

The English Garden : a Poem : in Four Books. By W. Mason. A. M. A new Edition, corrected. 8vo. 4s. Doddsley.

To this elegant edition of the English Garden, are added a Commentary and Notes, by W. Burgh, Esq. and LL. D. The remarks and illustrations are instructive and entertaining, and cannot but prove acceptable to all who have a taste for the subject.

Poems, by Robert Alves, A. M. 8vo. 4s. Cadell.

These Poems consist of odes and elegies, the former gay and serious, the latter moral and descriptive. If we except an Elegy on Time, they are not objects of praise ; being generally debased with barbarisms, obscurity, and inharmonious versification.

Second Thoughts on the present Ministry, or new Coalition. 4to. 1s. Debreët.

A poetical, and seemingly much interested, but not very formidable opponent of the present administration.

D R A-

D R A M A T I C.

The Mutual Deception, a Comedy, as it was performed at the Theatre-Royal, Dublin. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly.

This mode of deception has been so common on the stage, that we can scarcely expect a new situation; but we have neither new characters, nor new language. The author is however ingenuous, for he tells us his source; a piece of honesty the more commendable as it is unusual. The story is shortly this: a young gentleman returned from his travels, is engaged to marry a lady, whom he has never seen. Anxious to know something of his destined bride, without the constraint necessary to his situation, he exchanges characters with his servant. The lady, from the same motive, takes the dress and place of her suivante. As may be expected, the new servants fall in love with each other, and both fear to descend from their dignity by such low connexions. This embarrassment is not very interesting, because it is not well managed. The pretended lady and gentleman, on the other hand, are eager to deceive each other by a secret marriage, and they succeed. In their courtship there is some humour, but no great novelty. The episode is very trifling, and is the invention of the author. The dialogue is seldom sprightly, and never witty; so that, on the whole, we fear it would prove a very insipid performance.—It succeeded on the Dublin stage; but there are many local circumstances, which might have contributed to this distinction: we would not advise the managers of either house to repeat the experiment.

The Genius of Ireland, a Masque, in Three Acts. By John Macaulay, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Dilly.

This little poem possesses merit, both in a political and dramatic view: it is not strictly a masque, but perhaps something better, for the only part which may deserve this title, is the appearance of the Genius of Ireland. The story of Sylvia and Pat Ploughshare is simple and pastoral; and the songs are pleasing and poetical, though the greater number are of the humorous kind.

The description of the Genius is a 'strain of higher mood.' We shall select it, but must add, that the 'bright zone' should not have outshone the lustre of her eyes, which it must have done if it pierced the darkness of the shade. This lessens the idea, and may perhaps be styled an Hybernicism: but, on the whole, there is dignity in the image, and propriety in the description.

Thyrsis.

Yes: last night

Just at this sober hour of serious thought,
As through the glade I pass'd, a sudden sound
Of dulcet music floating in the air
Stole on my ravish'd sense: sweeter it seem'd
Than aught of mortal touch could e'er produce.

I stopp'd

I stopp'd and listen'd. Then, methought I heard
 One chanting voice; then others, joining round
 In such seraphic concert, that entranc'd
 I stood: I was all ears; till from the brake,
 Where yonder coppice forms a hanging arch,
 To my astonish'd eyes a form divine,
 (For sure it must be so) with solemn step,
 And most majestic gait, came slowly forth.

'*Dorilas.* Was it of manly form, or softer sex?

'*Thyriss.* Of female shape. Around her graceful waist
 The bright zone glitt'ring pierc'd, with sudden glance,
 The darkness of the shade; and from her eyes
 Beam'd forth such heav'nly rays, yet temper'd so
 Their radiant lustre, as might mingle love
 And awful rev'rence. On her head she wore
 The shamrock green, and in her hand she held
 A silver wand, which as she wav'd around
 Th' obedient choir with more harmonious sound
 Fill'd all the air, and quite entranc'd my soul.'

D I V I N I T Y.

Dr. Watts's Hymns and Moral Songs for the Use of Children, revised and altered. To which are added, Prayers for the Use of Children. 12mo. 6d. Marshall.

Dr. Watts's Divine Songs, as revised and altered by the present editor, are now rendered more suitable than formerly for the instruction of young children. That they are unexceptionable in point of doctrine, and may answer the purpose intended, is sufficient to recommend them; for, as mere compositions, we do not consider them as objects of criticism. A few prayers are subjoined to the poetry; and to render the work more pleasing to young minds, every hymn and song is ornamented at the beginning with a cut.

Primitive Candour: or the Moderation of the earlier Fathers towards the Unitarians, the necessary Consequence of the Circumstance of the Times. 8vo. 1s. Buckland.

This author observes that the testimonies of the earlier fathers in confirmation of the divinity of Christ, are not so numerous and strong as might have been expected from men of their acknowledged principles. But he ascribes this conduct to prudential reasons; alledging, that had they openly asserted the divinity of Christ, they might have seemed to countenance the heresy of the Gnostics, who denied the supreme power of the God of Abraham. Whatever probability there may be in this conjecture, the author's design in investigating the subject appears to us a little problematical. If, on the one hand, he really favours the Gnostic heresy, he betrays extravagance of theological speculation; and if, on the other, he believes the

Trinitarian doctrine, he discovers a levity not very compatible with the disposition, and utterly repugnant to the duty, of an orthodox writer.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

Letters to a Young Planter ; or, Observations on the Management of a Sugar Plantation. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Strachan.

These Letters are very trifling in every respect : in some instances, they are certainly erroneous. The greater part of the directions may have been easily written without having seen the West India islands, and the rest may have been collected from books ; for there really are books on the subject, though the author seems not to have known them. An essay on the management of the sugar cane, in particular, appeared some years since, in the Philosophical Transactions. It is not necessary to dwell on the errors of the author, both in philosophy and common husbandry ; for this work will never attain a high rank in the list of scientific productions.

A candid and impartial Sketch of the Life and Government of Pope Clement XIV. containing many interesting Anecdotes during that Period of Church-History. In a Series of Letters from Rome. Vol. II. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Symonds.

Of the former volume of this work we gave an account in our Review for November last. The present volume traces the public conduct of Ganganelli after he had mounted the papal throne. This being an event which places his character in a more conspicuous point of view, we henceforth behold him in the capacity of a sovereign, administering the affairs, and directing the councils of a powerful state. With regard to the Catholic courts, he appears to have conducted himself in general upon the principles of good policy. He saw the expediency of pursuing peaceful measures, and seems to have followed the most prudent means for that purpose. In respect of his domestic government, particularly the choice of proper ministers, we cannot consider him as equally entitled to approbation. He was more the patron of some profligate men than was consistent with the character of a good prince ; and entrusted the administration of the state too much to those who were not qualified either by virtue or education for such offices. This is the more surprising in a person who, though educated a Romish ecclesiastic, appears to have been well acquainted with mankind. But he knew that the passive disposition of the papal subjects could not easily be provoked to resistance. The liberality of Ganganelli with regard to religious distinctions, is the most conspicuous virtue in his character ; though it exposes him, more than any real blemish, to the odium of bigotted catholics.

English

English Classics abridged; being Select Works of Addison, Pope, and Milton, adapted to the Perusal of Youth, of both Sexes, at School. To which are prefixed, Observations on the several Authors, addressed to Parents and Preceptors. By J. Walker, Author of Elements of Elocution, Rhetorical Grammar, &c. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Robinson.

Mr. Walker is well known to the world not only for his accurate acquaintance with the English language, but for teaching the pronunciation of it with propriety; and it is owing, we presume, to his employment in the latter of these capacities, that he has turned his thoughts towards executing the abridgement now before us. We find that he has been induced to this undertaking from an opinion, that the writings even of the best authors are unsuitable to the purposes of early education; because, being addressed to mature age, they present such pictures of human life as, though both instructive and agreeable to the parent and philosopher, may be highly improper for the perusal of pupils of the younger class, whose imaginations ought to be carefully guarded against whatever is indelicate.

We cannot but sincerely approve of a plan, the object of which is to preserve the imaginations of youth from the intrusion of improper ideas; and it affords us additional satisfaction to find that Mr. Walker has so abridged the most conspicuous English writers, as to furnish a compendium which may form the taste of youth, without the danger of sullyng their minds. The selection he has made for this purpose affords sufficient proof of his own taste and judgment; which are farther confirmed by his sensible observations on the authors whose works he has abridged. We would, therefore, recommend this volume as a valuable production for the perusal of youth, whom it may instruct and entertain by the purest sentiments, in language the most elegant and chaste.

A Trip to Holland. Containing Sketches of Characters: together with Cursory Observations on the Manners and Customs of the Dutch. Small 8vo. 2s. 6d. Becket.

If this was not so pointed an imitation of the Sentimental Journey; it might be entitled to considerable praise; but 'we hate e'en Garrick, thus at second hand.' The descriptions, however, though slight, are appropriated, the narrative lively, and the sentiment entirely Shandean.

"Observations made in a Trip to Holland—Ha! ha! ha!" And why that laugh, good Mr. Critic? You imagine, perhaps, that a Belgic sky has something particularly baneful in its influence; and that the man who has resided for any little time in Holland must necessarily become as dull and phlegmatic as many of its inhabitants? "I do." You imagine, likewise, that a Dutchman is totally devoid of sentiment; and that a Dutchwoman is an utter stranger to those finer affections of the soul

soul which so eminently characterize our lovely countrywomen ;
 “ Undoubtedly.” Why, then, you are undoubtedly mistaken.”

The language is not always elegant ; occasionally a vulgar word, like Shakspere’s ‘ blanket of the night,’ will obscure and debase the sentiment : sometimes our expectations are raised without an adequate gratification ; but, on the whole, our author may be literally styled ‘ an agreeable companion in a post-chaise.’

The Description and Use of the new invented patent Universal Sowing Machine, for broad-casting or drilling every Kind of Grain, Pulse, and Seed. By John Horn. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

This machine is very clearly described, and seems really to be sold at an inconsiderable price. In this the patentee has acted with discretion ; for the very dear rate at which many patent machines are sold, is the strongest incentive to other workmen to evade the exclusive right. It encourages no peculiar method of husbandry, but is equally adapted to drilling and broad-cast, and seems, so far as we can judge from the description and plate, to be highly useful. We have not seen the machine at work, and we know that apparently the best contrivances fail in practice ; but the author seems well acquainted with his subject, and we have much reason to confide in his promises. It is not easy to give a particular account of his invention, without the assistance of a plate.

Genuine Memoirs of Jane Elizabeth Moore, late of Bermondsey, in the County of Surry ; written by herself. 3 Vols. 12mo. 9s. sewed. Bew.

Mrs. Moore, by a concurrence of misfortunes, chiefly accidental, seems to have been reduced from a state of affluence to poverty and distress. Though we cannot recommend the work ; yet the feeling heart will pity, and the liberal one assist her.

The Ratchfords ; or, the Friendly Counsellor : designed for the Instruction and Amusement of the Youth of both Sexes. By M. P. In Two Vols. 8vo. 3s. 4d. Marshall.

This work contains some useful precepts, but we cannot commend it highly on account of the exceptionable language, which we reprehended in a similar work of the same editor. Improper words should be very sparingly used, even when they are intended to be exposed, and should be carefully pointed out as mean, vulgar, and inelegant. The parents use ‘ ugly’ and ‘ vastly’ on many occasions, when they are not properly applicable ; and the editor spells lilach ‘ layluc,’ which leads to a vulgar ungraceful mode of pronunciation. The language of the children is also exceptionable : we are enemies to a stiff, formal phraseology ; but it is not impossible to blend the greatest ease with correctness, and the most polished elegance with precision. While we watch over the food of young minds, we shall

shall not overlook such errors; and, if they are not amended, shall expose them with greater severity.

Interesting Memoirs. By a Lady. In Two Vols. 12mo. 5s. sewed. Cadell.

In many respects these Memoirs are really interesting, for the duties of morality and religion are of the highest importance. They are in different parts of this work inculcated with a zeal that deserves success. In other respects, the Memoirs are amusing, with little novelty either of sentiment or character; but the different parts are well proportioned to each other; and we are never long detained by our author's instructions, without some relief from the narrative.

The former edition of these Memoirs was circulated in a remote part of the kingdom; the second has succeeded it, and is now first published in England.

Dairying exemplified; or the Business of Cheese-making laid down from approved Rules, collected from the most experienced Dairy Women of several Counties. By J. Twamley. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Rivington.

This treatise contains a particular account of the art of making cheese and butter, drawn from a course of thirty years practice in those useful departments of rural œconomy. The author, Mr. Twamley, seems indeed to write from experience; and we would therefore recommend this work to all who have any concern in the management of dairies, as abounding with observations highly instructive and useful. It is written in a plain style, suitable to one whose station has rendered him familiar with the subject; and it likewise contains useful observations on the culture of the orchard, and on husbandry.

A Compendium of useful Knowledge. By Dr. John Truster. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Baldwin.

This Compendium professes to contain a concise explanation of every thing a young man ought to know, to enable him to converse on all general topics—and this in no more than a hundred and sixty duodecimo pages. In some future production, who needs to doubt that the ingenious Dr. Truster will comprise all useful knowledge within the small compass of a nut-shell?

The School of Arts; or an Introduction to useful Knowledge. By John Inison. 8vo. 8s. in Boards. Murray.

A compilation of experiments and improvements in several branches of science, viz. mechanics, electricity, optics, construction of optical instruments, clock and watch-making, astronomy, drawing, etching, engraving, crayon-painting, gilding, and a variety of other articles in different trades.

Pre-

Precedents of Proceedings in the House of Commons, Vol. III. Relating to Lords and Supply. 4to. 10s. sewed. Dodsley.

The two preceding volumes of this work have been published a few years since, the first in 1776, the second in 1781. The publication is of a nature chiefly useful to members of parliament; but, from the general information it affords, must also prove interesting to every political reader. Mr. Hatfield is entitled to great praise for the pains he has taken to delineate the genuine spirit of the constitution, which he shews to have been always founded in the principles of public liberty. This is that venerable spirit, an inviolable regard to which ought to be cultivated in the breast of every member of the British legislature; and by an attachment to the precedents it has inspired through every age, the constitution is to be preserved in its ancient purity and vigour.

The Trial of a Cause between Miss Mellish, Plaintiff, and Miss Rankin, Defendant. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Almon.

In this Trial, relative to an ejectment for lands in the county of Nottingham, the plaintiff claimed to be entitled to the estate of her father, the late Charles Mellish, esq. in preference to the defendant, who was the niece of the deceased, and one of the principal parties in his will. The jury found for the plaintiff. This cause, as the editor of the trial observes, affords a strong instance of the necessity of avoiding equivocal expressions in deeds which relate to the disposal of property.

Trial of John Hart, Esq. for Adultery and Cruelty. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Lister.

This Trial exposes some very remarkable domestic scenes of the cruelty of a husband towards his wife; in consequence of which she obtained a divorce.

A Narrative of the Lord's Dealings with John Marrant. 8vo. 6d. Gilbert and Plummer.

According to this Narrative, John Marrant, a notorious young sinner of fifteen years of age, was suddenly converted to the Christian faith, by the late Mr. Whitefield. Coming over to England afterwards, he became a dispenser of the Gospel under the auspices of the countess of Huntington, and is now a missionary, for the conversion of the Indians in America. John's Narrative is not only richly seasoned with adventure, but contains a spice of the marvellous, and what is yet more, even of the miraculous. We fear that these are not now the most convincing proofs of apostolical mission.

The

The Trial, at Hereford, the Hon. Edward Foley, Plaintiff, and Charles Henry Earl of Peterborough and Monmouth, Defendant, for criminal Conversation with Lady Ann Foley, the Plaintiff's Wife. 4to. 1s. 6d. Woodman.

The circumstances of this Trial are foreign to a Review. It is sufficient for us, therefore, to observe, that the jury gave the plaintiff two thousand five hundred pounds damages.

Historical Account of the Settlement and Possession of Bombay by the East India Company. 8vo. 5s. Robson.

A mean, languid, and totally uninteresting narrative, so ungrammatical, that it can be the production of none but a most illiterate author.

Two Letters to David Hume, by one of the People called Quakers. 8vo. 6d. Crowder.

These Letters contain nothing more than a few trite observations on the nature and tendency of Mr. Hume's moral principles, expressed in the usual style of the Quakers.

A circumstantial Narrative of the Loss of the Halfewell (East Indiaman), Captain Richard Pierce, which was unfortunately wrecked at Seacombe, in the Isle of Purbeck, on the Coast of Dorsetshire, on the Morning of Friday the 6th of January, 1786. 8vo. 1s. Lane.

The melancholy fate of the Halfewell East-Indiaman is already known to the public, and is a subject of too distressful a nature to admit of repetition. The present Narrative is said to be compiled from the communications, and under the authorities of Mr. Henry Meriton and Mr. John Rogers, the two chief officers who escaped the dreadful catastrophe. The circumstances attending the shipwreck, as related in this Narrative, the style of which is too florid for the subject, are the same that have been mentioned in the public prints, a little amplified, particularly in the account of captain Pierce, and others, who perished on this lamentable occasion.



CRITICAL REVIEW.

 For FEBRUARY, 1786.

Various Subjects of Natural History, wherein are delineated Birds, Animals, and many curious Plants. By J. Miller. Six Numbers, at 1l. 1s. each, containing Six coloured Plates. Large Folio. Sewell.

THESE large and very beautiful prints are designed as a supplement to the author's botanical work; and we equally admire the strength and spirit of the attitudes, the splendid colouring, and the judicious choice of the different subjects. We regret only, that from the great care and attention employed in the execution, they must be necessarily beyond the reach of many ardent votaries of the science which they so strikingly illustrate. Six Numbers have only yet appeared; and we shall enumerate the subjects of each.

The first plate contains the *loxia orix*, a new species, first described in one of the *Mantissæ* of Linnæus, 527; and a species of *antholyza*, the *a. canonia*.

Another species of *loxia*, the *l. coronata*, and a very elegant one of the splendid genus *astroemeria*, viz. the *a. ligta*. The *a. pelegrina* was admitted into the palaces of the Peruvian kings, while the other ornaments were golden imitations of different vegetables*. It is now well known in our hot-houses. The *loxia longicauda*, and the *gnaphalium eximium*, from the vegetable kingdom, are the subjects delineated in the third table. In the fourth, the colouring in the copy before us is not laid on with the minute exactness which distinguishes it in the other plates. Its subjects are the *psittacus atricapillus*, and the *chelone penstemon*. In this table, as well as in most of the others, where a flower is delineated, the different parts are separately engraved; and, if necessary, magnified.

In the fifth are the *psittacus aurantius*, and the *illicium floridanum*: in the sixth, the *upupa promerops*, though it is

* *Amœnitates Academicæ*, vol. vi.

doubtful whether the specimen be not a new species ; with the *eryngium alpinum*.

In the seventh table is a representation of one of the most splendid plants which the new discovered islands of the Pacific Ocean yield. Its leaf and habit resemble the magnolia, its flower is very different. Mr. Forster has called it the *Barringtonia speciosa*. It is found also on the eastern coasts of India. The next table presents us with the *ampelis Carolinenfis*, and a new plant, the *amaryllis crispa*: the ninth, with a new plant from *Æthiopia*, the *antholyza Æthiopica*. The tenth is the Canadian elk, the *cervus alces* of Linnæus. The eleventh, the *lacerta chamelion*, with its long tongue which entangles flies. The twelfth, the *larus albus* from the arctic regions: and the thirteenth, the *lemur murinus* from Madagascar, in its waking, and singular sleeping state.

The fourteenth table contains an accurate and splendid representation of the casuary: the next, the male and female *muscipapa striata*, from Hudson's Bay; and the *ampelis cristata*, from America. The sixteenth contains a very beautiful bird, the *Columba coronata*, from the Cape of Good Hope: and the two following, two species of Falcon, from *Tierra del Fuego* and *Greenland*. In the nineteenth, is by much the best representation of the hyæna that we have seen; and a coloured print of the black wolf, from Hudson's-bay. The *viverra tetradactyla*, from the extremes of Africa, is the only ornament of the twentieth plate; but in the twenty-first, are three little birds from North America, the *parus Hudsonicus*, the *fringella Hudsonica*, and the *emberiza leucophrys*. In the twenty-second is a bird of the heron kind, which, from the shape of its bill, we have called the spoon-bill, the *platalæa leucorodia* of Linnæus, remarkable for building its nest in trees. In the twenty-third and thirty-fourth tables, are two species of penguin, the *aptenodytes Patagonica* and *Magellanica*. These birds recel strongly fir John Narborough's description. He says they appear like children, with bibs pinned before them. This appropriated language, from strong first impressions, is often highly valuable; and its expressive-brevity is equally striking, in a groupe of these animals, in the tail-piece.

The twenty-fourth plate exhibits the *cuculus indicator*, from the Cape of Good Hope, the little bird which conducts the traveller to the hoarded treasure of the industrious bee, by first attracting his notice, and then hovering over the spot with expressive cries. It cannot obtain the honey by its own efforts, and is therefore contented to share the plunder with a more powerful ally. These birds are often highly useful in such un-

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frequented deserts, as they furnish a palatable addition to the slender diet of the traveller. In the same plate is a print of the *fringilla cyanocapilla* from Senegal.

The twenty-fifth plate shews the *brucea antidyenterica*, a species of a new genus from Africa, used by the natives as a specific against the dysentery. The next is a new species of *testudo* called *fulcata*, from the West Indies; the shell is beautifully variegated: and the following object is the Chinese wild man. We recommend the animal to the attention of lord Monboddo; but, if we can trust general habits and appearances, it is of the monkey race. Its arms, particularly, reach far below its knees: it is, however, classed by our author under the genus *HOMO*.

The twenty-eighth plate represents that species of falcon, so useful at the Cape of Good Hope, called *serpentarius*, from its feeding on serpents. The following plate exhibits a new species of *psittacus*, called, from its native haunts, *Guinienfis*. Two birds from India, and one from South America, fill the twenty-ninth plate. The first is a new species of the minute *trochilus*, from its voracity called *gularis*. The second is a new species of *fringilla*, called *torquata*; and the last, which is also new, is the *motacilla gularis*.

The *jerboa Capensis*, from the extremity of Africa, is a new genus of the fourth class of *Linnaeus*. It is a beautiful animal, the insides of whose ears are of a vivid pink colour. The next object is a new species of *lemur*, the *l. bicolor*; and the next a new one of the *otis*; the first is from South America, and the second from India. The two last plates of the sixth Number represent two new species of *ardea*, from South America, the *a. naevia* and *torquata*.

We have thus given a short description of the different subjects in this work, with a few remarks to point out their nature. It will be readily observed, that the species delineated are generally new, and frequently important. When they were before known, those chiefly are selected, which had not been hitherto engraven with sufficient accuracy. It will be obvious, that if the same care be employed in the progress of the work, it will become very valuable; and the cost, though great, be repaid with considerable information. At present, from the number of African animals, it is an useful addition to *Sparrmann's Voyage*; and we suspect, in the prosecution of it, that it will no less assist the different narrations of captain Cook. At the same time, it will be a monument of skill and knowledge, of which an Englishman may be justly proud; because it is the work of his countryman, because it is yet unrivalled, and probably will remain without an equal.

A Biographical Dictionary, containing an historical Account of all the Engravers; from the earliest Period of the Art of Engraving to the present Time; and a short List of their most esteemed Works. With the Cyphers, Monograms, and particular Marks, used by each Master, accurately copied from the Originals, and properly explained. To which is prefixed, An Essay on the Rise and Progress of the Art of Engraving, both on Copper and on Wood. With several curious Specimens of the Performances of the most ancient Masters. By Joseph Strutt. Vol. I. 4to. 11. 1s. in Boards. Faulder.

IN England, the art of engraving is much cultivated, and its artists now excel those of every other country; yet we have still wanted a satisfactory account of the engravers, or their works, in the English language.

‘ In France (we are informed) the example has been set us by Bafon, who, with the assistance of the notes of M. Mariette, has given us a regular account of upwards of a thousand artists. It is a very ingenious compilation, and, as far as it goes, exceedingly useful. The descriptions which he gives of the prints belonging to each artist are very accurate, and the observations which occur, are no small proofs of the solidity of his judgment; but he has generally omitted to inform us of the style or manner in which they are worked: neither has he given us the marks or monograms, which they often substituted instead of their names; and these omissions render his work much less valuable than it would otherwise have been, because it affords us but little assistance in distinguishing the works of one master from those of another of the same name, or who might use the same mark.

‘ The other foreign publications upon the subject, though very multifarious, are, nevertheless, exceedingly defective; few of them speak of the art of engraving abstractedly; and the greater part of them are little more than unsatisfactory catalogues of the names of the artists, or lists of their works, without any proper description. If professor Christ had paid a sufficient attention to this particular, his Dictionary of Monograms would have afforded infinitely more assistance in distinguishing the works of the old masters, the one from the other; though it is confessedly, as it stands, a very desirable performance. In English, we have Evelyn’s *Sculptura*; a small book, entitled *Sculptura Historico-Technica*, compiled originally by the elder Faithorne; and the *Series of Engravers*, published at Cambridge: these, excepting catalogues of particular masters works, are all the books I can recollect of any consequence, in which the artists are generally spoken of (for Virtue’s Catalogue of the Engravers, published by the hon. Mr. Walpole,

is confined to the English school only; and that they are very defective, a small degree of examination will abundantly prove. I need not say how expensive it would be to purchase all the publications, which bear any reference to the art of engraving; but I fear, the information to be gained, from the far greater part of them, would be neither adequate to the cost, nor the study which must necessarily be bestowed upon them.'

The title of the work sufficiently explains its form, which is well adapted to the author's design. A system of the art might have been scientifically arranged; but the lives of the artists require no such fetters, and they would lessen the utility of a work of this kind, which is rather to be referred to than read. A chronological table is, however, intended to be placed at the end of the second volume, with a list of the disciples of each master.

'Nearly three thousand names are included in the narrow limits of this work; the lives of the artists must, of course, be drawn up in as short a compass as possible. I am well aware of the dryness of a mere Dictionary history, as also of the frequent repetitions which must necessarily occur; and I have endeavoured to compensate for these defects, by a diligent attention to truth: at the same time, whenever I could meet with an interesting anecdote to enliven the performance, I have gladly inserted it. But so many of the engravers lived and died in obscurity, that little, very little matter of amusement, exclusive of the arts, can be gathered from the barren soil. These unfavourable circumstances will not, I hope, be placed to my account, even when it appears, that I have chosen rather to leave the subject naked as it is, than to adorn it in a more pleasing manner, at the expence of veracity.

'With respect to the general character of each artist, I have written as an engraver, and endeavoured, as clearly as possible, to point out the style in which he worked; and wherein his great excellence consisted; and upwards of twenty years experience may, perhaps, plead a little in favour of my judgment. I have constantly, however, endeavoured to deliver my sentiments in the most impartial manner: and if I am in any instance thought to speak too highly in favour of the artist, I hope to claim some small share of indulgence, because I constantly speak as I feel, and never presume to give my opinion positively, without adding the reasons upon which it is grounded.'

So far as this work has gone, the judicious author has fulfilled his promises; and we receive it with more pleasure, since we are very sensible of the difficulties which must have attended the execution. The several engravers, in this volume, appear to us very accurately characterized; and where their life has admitted of introducing any entertaining circumstances, out

of the line of their profession, they have been properly inserted. As a specimen of this kind, we shall transcribe the Life of John Blagrave.

John Blagrave, born Died, 1611. An excellent mathematician. He was the second son of John Blagrave, of Bulmarsh-Court, in the county of Berkshire. The former part of his education he received at Reading, from whence he removed to St. John's college, Oxford. When he quitted the university, where he did not long reside, he retired to Southcote-Lodge, and devoted his time to study, his genius chiefly leading him to the science of mathematics. He also reduced his studies to practice, and gave to the public the fruit of his labours. He was a man of a benevolent disposition; and his judicious charities are still remembered at Reading with gratitude. One especially is too singular to be omitted in this place. Annually, on Good Friday, he appointed the church-wardens of the several parishes in that town, to choose three maidens of fair character, each of which had lived three years in her place, and to bring them to the town-hall, where, before the mayor and aldermen, they cast dice; and she who is so fortunate as to throw the highest number, is presented with a purse containing ten pounds, and attended by the other two maidens who lost the cast. The year following, the maidens, who lost the cast the year before, come again, with a third added to them, and throw again. But if any one is so unfortunate as to lose three throws, she cannot cast a fourth time, but is excluded from the benefit of the charity. Mr. Ashmole, who gives a full account of this custom, adds: "it is lucky money; for I never heard, but that the maid that had the ten pounds suddenly got a good husband." Mr. Blagrave died at his house near Reading, August 9, 1611, and was interred, near his mother, in the church of St. Lawrence, in that town. His principal works are the following: a Treatise on the making and using the Familiar Staff. The Astrolabium Uranicum generale. The Art of Dalling, and the Mathematical Jewel. This last is his greatest and most esteemed performance. It was printed in 1585, at London, with this note in the frontispiece: "By John Blagrave of Reading, gentleman, and well-willer to the mathematics, who hath cut all the prints or pictures of the whole with his own hands." They are wooden cuts, and neatly executed. Where he has not put his name at length, it is thus abbreviated, "J. Blag. sculp."

As a specimen of his characters of the style of engravers, we shall select the following account of that of Cornelius Bloemart.

The manner of engraving, adopted by this excellent artist, appears to me to be not only quite original, but the source from which

which we may trace that style, in which the greatest and best French masters excelled : those I mean, who worked with the graver only. He covered the lights upon his distances, and the other parts of his plates, which required tinting, with great care. The lights, whether on the distant hills, trees, buildings, or figures, in the engravings prior to his time, had been left quite clear, and by so many white spots scattered, in various parts of the same design, the harmony was destroyed, the subject confused, and the principal figures prevented from relieving with any striking effect. By this judicious improvement, Bloemart gave to his prints a more clear and finished appearance, than all the laboured neatness even of Jerom Wierix had been able to produce.

‘ He drew correctly ; but from his style of engraving, which is executed entirely with the graver, the extremities of his figures are heavy ; and his heads are not always equally beautiful or expressive. With respect to the mechanical part of the works, few indeed have excelled him, either in clearness or freedom of execution. His great fault, however, is want of variety. The naked parts of his figures, the draperies, and the back-ground, are equally neat, and engraved precisely in the same manner. Hence the effect is flat, and the flesh, for want of sufficient distinction, appears cold and silvery. His works are justly held in high estimation.’

In other parts, he inserts useful cautions to collectors, which may be attended to with advantage. Speaking of the works of Scheltius a Bolswert, he observes,

‘ It is very necessary to caution the collectors of this master’s works (those especially who are not very conversant with them), that many of them have been copied in a very careful manner, so as easily to deceive the unskilful. Some of these copies, as the Marriage of the Virgin, from Rubens, &c. are by Lawers. But those which are most likely to mislead are by Ragot, a French engraver, employed by Mariette the print-seller, who frequently meeting with the reverses or counter-proofs, from the prints of Bolswert, gave them to the engraver ; and he imitated them with the utmost precision. By this means the impressions from the plate copied come upon the paper the same way with the original. It is true, his name is usually affixed at the bottom ; but it is often cut off, and then the copy is not easily distinguished from the original. Among other prints thus imitated by Ragot from Bolswert, is Christ crucified between the two thieves ; where the soldier is represented piercing his side, from Rubens.’

At the end of the volume is a very full collection of engravers marks and monograms, with an Essay on the Art of Engraving, and some observations on the subject, by another

hand.

hand. We entirely agree in this ingenious author's opinion, that of all the imitative arts, engraving is most applicable to general use. Prints, from the facility with which they are multiplied, have a great advantage over paintings. Many of the best paintings of the early masters have been executed on walls, or deposited in damp unfrequented buildings; while a print, with common care, passes unhurt from one collection to another. In England, where capital performances of the ancient masters are very scarce, we are much indebted to prints for giving us proper ideas respecting their merits. As far as design, composition, and drawing, are concerned, a print is equally estimable with a picture; and if the painter was a bad colourist; as was the case with Peter Testa, the print gives him a reputation, which, on account of that defect, he never would have acquired from the picture. 'What printing has been with respect to general science, engraving has been to the arts; and the works of the old Italian masters will be indebted to engraving for that perpetuity which the invention of printing has secured to the Jerusalem of Tasso, and the tragedies of Shakspeare and Corneille.'

Mr. Strutt very accurately examines the different evidences in favour of Italy and Germany, in respect to the invention of engraving plates for impressions, and concludes that there is the greatest reason to believe, that the art was practised in Germany before it reached Italy. It did not appear in Italy before the year 1460; while it may, with the greatest justice, be placed ten years earlier among the Germans. The author is of opinion, that the art was practised in its infancy, in our own country, of which he produces a specimen, together with several other plates, either originals, or copies from the oldest masters.

This volume finishes with the letter G, and abounds with information, superior to any work we have seen on the same subject. We hope that the author will complete his design, so soon as the great attention and care, necessary for the purpose, will permit. In the prosecution of it, we would advise him to write *aqua tinta*, instead of *aqua tinto*, which is a vulgarism much beneath a writer of his rank.

Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Vol. LXXV. For the Year 1785. Part I. (Concluded, from p. 59.)

Article XI. Observations and Experiments on the Light of Bodies in a State of Combustion. By the Rev. Mr. Morgan.—The experiments and conclusions of Mr. Morgan are

are very ingenious. As it seems now to be generally acknowledged, that light is a body, consisting of different parts, capable of becoming a component part of other bodies, and of being separated by a superior attraction, Mr. Morgan examines the phenomena of combustion, to ascertain the manner of its separation. It appears, from this enquiry, that the most refrangible rays are decomposed with the least heat, and the least refrangible only with a greater; but besides the mere power of heat, there are other modes of retarding or accelerating the combustion of bodies.

‘ 1. A candle burns most rapidly and brilliantly in dephlogisticated air.

‘ 2. The blue column of a sulphureous flame in pure air is changed into a dazzling white.

‘ 3. The flame of inflammable air, when mixed with nitrous air, is green. It is white strongly tinged with the indigo and violet when mixed with common air; but when mixed with dephlogisticated air, or surrounded by it, the brilliancy of its flame is most singularly beautiful.

‘ If the preceding facts prove that light, as an heterogeneous body, is gradually decomposed during combustion; if they prove, likewise, that the indigo rays escape with the least heat, and the red with the greatest; I think we may rationally account for several singularities in the colours of different flames. If a piece of paper, impregnated with a solution of copper in the nitrous acid, be set on fire, the bottom and sides of the flame are always tinged with green. Now this flame is evidently in that weak state of decomposition, in which the most refrangible rays escape in the greatest abundance; but of these rays the green escaped most plentifully through the unignited vapour, and that portion of the atmosphere which separates the eye from the flame. The peculiarity which I have now endeavoured to account for may be observed in the greatest perfection in brass founderies. The heat in this instance, though very strong, is scarcely adequate to the decomposition of the metallic vapour which escapes from the melted brass. A very singular flame, therefore, appears to the eye; for while its edges are green, its body is such as to give the objects around a very pallid or ghastly appearance, which is the consequence of its wanting that portion of red rays which is necessary to make a perfect white.’

Many other singularities, in the appearance of flame, are examined and explained on the same foundation, with equal ingenuity.

The appearances of electric light next claim Mr. Morgan's attention. Every fluid or solid body may be made luminous by the passage of electric light; but the difficulty of making
any

any body luminous is greater, the more powerful that body is as a conductor, or the more its density is increased. Again, the brilliancy and splendour of the electric fluid, in its passage through any body, are increased by lessening the dimensions of that body; and the influence of different media, on electric light, is analogous to their influence on solar light. These several positions are elucidated by decisive experiments. The conclusions from them are equally ingenious; but they would not be easily intelligible without the experiments, so that we must refer to the volume.

In the observations on phosphoric light, Mr. Morgan objects to Mr. Wilson's opinion, that it proceeds from a slow combustion; and, with more reason attributes it to the light of the sun not being immediately reflected, but to its being retained with some force, though not actually absorbed. In fact, the phosphoric light is nearly in the same state with heat, which, when added to a body, and not combined with it as a component part, gradually escapes. As some bodies receive heat by exposure to it, into their composition, without allowing it to escape, so some metallic calces are changed in consequence of exposure to light. Again, phosphoric light is sometimes separated by heat, but not attended with any additional heat; and, in this case, we approach more nearly to Mr. Wilson's opinion of its being a mode of combustion. But we must not indulge ourselves too much in these reflections.

Art. XII. On the Construction of the Heavens. By William Herschel, Esq. F. R. S.—The magnitude of the objects, the vast distance, and amazing extent of the fields of view, mentioned in this paper, fill the mind with ideas so immense, that it is lost in the contemplation; and, when we endeavour to pursue them in imagination, we often lose sight of the whole. We have frequently experienced this obscurity in reviewing Mr. Herschel's researches: we now feel it with additional force; so that we fear our account of this paper will appear imperfect and obscure. We cannot enter on it at any length; for then our article must equal the original.

A reader of Mr. Herschel's works must possess a lively imagination, and a clear ready comprehension: he must forget his former ideas of fixed stars being scattered in parallel planes; and must learn to conceive as many different inclinations of them, as there are varieties of nebulae or systems.

At page eighteenth of the last volume, we gave some account of the author's first paper on this subject. He now pursues his former reasoning. The groups, he supposes, may be formed by the laws of attraction: if we originally suppose the stars scat

scattered regularly, some larger star will attract the neighbouring smaller ones, and their united power will contribute to increase the number; so that distinct *nebulæ* will be formed, each of which will comprehend a great number of stars. The *nebulæ* will be varied in form, from the size of the stars, their original vicinity, and other circumstances; and, when these become numerous, vacant spaces will consequently be left. This theoretical view is very consonant to what really appears; and the agreement is so striking, that it must be very near the truth. In this theory, Mr. Herschel considers a projectile force as originally impressed on these bodies, to avoid the objection, that if this account were true, we know of no power which could impede their falling into each other. We see afterwards reason to think, that this sometimes happens. If we suppose the distance of a star of the first magnitude to be unity, one of the second as at twice the distance, and so on to the seventh, the smallest star that we can, even with common assistance, perceive,

—It follows, that an observer, who is inclosed in a globular cluster of stars, and not far from the center, will never be able, with the naked eye, to see to the end of it: for, since, according to the above estimations, he can only extend his view to about seven times the distance of Sirius, it cannot be expected that his eyes should reach the borders of a cluster which has perhaps not less than fifty stars in depth every where around him. The whole universe, therefore, to him will be comprised in a set of constellations, richly ornamented with scattered stars of all sizes. Or if the united brightness of a neighbouring cluster of stars should, in a remarkable clear night, reach his sight, it will put on the appearance of a small, faint, whitish nebulous cloud, not to be perceived without the greatest attention. To pass by other situations, let him be placed in a much extended stratum, or branching cluster of millions of stars, such as may fall under the third form of *nebulæ*. Here also the heavens will not only be richly scattered over with brilliant constellations, but a shining zone or milky way will be perceived to surround the whole sphere of the heavens, owing to the combined light of those stars which are too small, that is too remote to be seen. Our observer's sight will be so confined, that he will imagine this single collection of stars, of which he does not even perceive the thousandth part, to be the whole contents of the heavens.

All this very nearly agrees with actual observations: the different kinds of *nebulæ* are observed in the forms here theoretically pointed out; and, instead of an imaginary description, it seems actually copied from nature. The nebula which
we

we inhabit appears, from the results of the table of star-gages, to be of the third kind, a very extensive *branching compound* congeries of many millions of stars. The section of the heavens, delineated in the plate, is drawn on a scale, in which the distance of Sirius is $\frac{1}{80}$ of an inch; and, in this scale, all the stars which we see in the finest nights may be comprehended within a circle of less than $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch radius.

It is impossible to follow the very wonderful phænomena which Mr. Herschel points out. He then proceeds to enumerate the different nebulae, and to consider their distance. In this respect, there must be necessarily much doubt. Some of these seem not to be at less than six or eight thousand times the distance of Sirius. All these circumstances, though apparently so astonishing, rest on a better foundation than many of the theories implicitly believed by mankind.

The paper concludes with an account of some nebulae, which which are called planetary. The edges are well defined; but they preserve their brightness, with very high magnifying powers: they are not bright enough for single stars, and too much so for comets in their aphelion. Mr. Herschel seems to suspect, that they may have arisen from nebulae, which, in consequence of various changes, may have rushed together, and been destroyed; but he purposes to examine them more particularly.

Art. XIII. Remarks on Specific Gravities taken at different Degrees of Heat, and an easy Method of reducing them to a common Standard. By Richard Kirwan, F. R. S.—This article cannot be abridged, because its utility consists in tables, which we cannot transcribe. The title explains its import; and it is executed with great accuracy and ingenuity.

Art. XIV. Electrical Experiments made in Order to ascertain the non-conducting Power of a perfect Vacuum, &c. By Mr. William Morgan—The non-conducting power of a perfect vacuum is in this article well ascertained, by the author's having produced one more perfect than we have yet known. When the air is rarefied it becomes a conductor, though, in its common state it is no longer so. Mr. Morgan's ingenuity and knowledge of nature would enable him to pursue this subject with advantage.

Art. XV. Experiments and Observations relating to Air and Water. By the Rev. Joseph Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S.—Dr. Priestley deserves as much praise for candour, as for his abilities. The experiments before us are a valuable supplement to those of M. Lavoisier; though there seems to have been a
little

little difference in the memoir transmitted to Dr. Priestley, from that which was published.

Iron melted in pure air, by a burning lens, was found to absorb the air almost entirely; the remainder was fixed air, and the iron was reduced to a calx; it increased in weight in proportion to the air absorbed. On reducing it, the increased weight disappeared, and the inflammable air lost was exactly the quantity sufficient to saturate the pure air which had originally disappeared; that is, it was enough to have completely exploded together. The additional weight which the iron had lost, however, appeared in the form of water, that covered the sides of the vessel in which the experiment was made. The remaining air was inflammable. The experiment succeeded also in Dr. Priestley's hands with copper and mercury, though M. Lavoisier's experiment with the tube of copper failed. We must, therefore, wait for farther information on this subject.

In other experiments, Dr. Priestley found that water was essential to the production of inflammable air. He was not aware that iron and charcoal, when intensely hot, had so strong an attraction for water, that 'they would attract it in the midst of the hottest fire, and through the pores of a retort.' He repeated his experiments, and saw that both substances only produced this air in consequence of water being accidentally present.

Though Dr. Priestley agrees with M. Lavoisier in the result of his experiments, he differs in the conclusion drawn from them. He still contends for the existence of phlogiston in inflammable air; though with both English and French chemists he seems to allow, that water is produced by the union of these kinds of air. In his experiments for this purpose, which were made with steam transmitted through charcoal, the inflammable air was united with fixed air, and the latter was often so accurately combined with the former, that it appeared only after decomposition. It seemed probable too, from the quantities expended, compared with the air procured, that it came rather from the other materials than the water. It was somewhat better established by the experiments with iron. We shall add Dr. Priestley's theory of the changes produced by these experiments; on the supposition that phlogiston really exists.

'Since iron gains the same addition of weight by melting in dephlogisticated air, and also by the addition of water when red-hot, and becomes, in all respects, the same substance, it is evident, that this air or water, as existing in the iron, is the very same thing; and this can hardly be explained but upon the supposition that water consists of two kinds of air, viz. inflammable

flammable and dephlogisticated. I shall endeavour to explain these processes in the following manner.

'When iron is melted in dephlogisticated air, we may suppose that, though part of its phlogiston escapes, to enter into the composition of the small quantity of fixed air which is then procured, yet enough remains to form water with the addition of dephlogisticated air which it has imbibed, so that this calx of iron consists of the intimate union of the pure earth of iron and of water; and, therefore, when the same calx, thus saturated with water, is exposed to heat in inflammable air, this air enters into it, destroys the attraction between the water and the earth, and revives the iron, while the water is expelled in its proper form.'

Some other curious experiments are added, which seem to support the English theory, in opposition to that of M. Lavoisier; but we cannot particularly relate them. Dr. Priestley concludes this curious paper with a hint 'that some important discoveries are nearly within our reach.' May this prophecy soon be realized!

The New Dispensatory. By William Lewis, M. B. F. R. S. The Fifth Edition, carefully revised and corrected. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Nourse.

The Edinburgh New Dispensatory, containing Elements of Pharmacy, &c. the two latter Parts comprehending the Preparations and Compositions of the last London and Edinburgh Pharmacopœias; being an Attempt to collect and apply the later Discoveries to the Dispensatory, published by Dr. Lewis. By Gentlemen of the Faculty at Edinburgh. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Elliot, Edinburgh; Robinsons, London.

THE appearance of a new edition of Dr. Lewis's Dispensatory, at the same time with an attempt to improve and amend it, has led us to compare these new publications with that on which they are formed. It would be useless and impertinent to enlarge on the original plan; for it is our present business only to examine the improvements: indeed the medical world has already decided on the merits of the former editions; and Dr. Lewis has gained, by his work, a very extensive reputation.

In the interval between the appearance of the second edition, for that was greatly improved by the author himself, and the present time, chemistry has almost become a new science; many articles have been added to the materia medica; several foreign Dispensatories have appeared with great applause; and the Edinburgh college have published two very improved editions

tions of their own. We may take this opportunity of informing physicians, that there is reason to expect a new one, from the college of this kingdom. It is indeed to be regretted, that pharmacy has not shared the same attention as chemistry; nor has it been examined with the indulgent fondness which has distinguished the other branches of the science; yet we certainly owe to the labours of chemists a more intimate acquaintance with the nature of metals, and a more exact mode of preparing metallic remedies: we more clearly understand the nature of vegetable and animal substances; and, in a few instances, have enlarged our knowledge of their respective *menstrua*. Many new articles of the *materia medica* are indeed already almost forgotten, and some cannot yet be procured; but, in a system of this kind, it is necessary that they should be mentioned, and the little information which we can obtain should be communicated.—From the foreign Dispensatories much knowledge can be procured. The best of these, the Wurtemberg Pharmacopœia of 1771, whose authority is very extensive through Germany; the Russian, the new Brunswick, and the late Swedish Dispensatories, might have contributed useful assistance to the present plan. We are sorry to observe that our editors have overlooked, or not been able to procure them. The omission perhaps is rather to be lamented than censured.

The conduct of these different improvers, in the latter parts of the work, is nearly the same. The alterations in the last, are those only of the Edinburgh Dispensatory; and the former professes to ‘*correct*’ the formulæ from the same work. But, while the promises of the first seem to have been punctually, those of the last have been carelessly, executed. The new formulæ are not added, and few marks of correction occur.

In the *Materia Medica*, (we choose a retrograde order, since these works diverge from each other in this direction), the additions to each are numerous; and the new articles are nearly the same; the sources from which they are transcribed are also not very different. In the London edition, however, the former remain unchanged; in that of Edinburgh, additions are freely interspersed: tables of mercurial and antimonial preparations are subjoined, as well as some articles which are not found in the other. These are the ‘*lactuca*’, one species of which, the virofa, has been recommended in dropsies; ‘*lichen islandicus*’, ‘*nux^{vomica}*’, &c. On the contrary, neither the ‘*quercus marina*’ (sea wrack), or the *viola tricolor*, which have shared the attention of the London editor, are mentioned; and, though the title of the *salix* is found,

its real or imputed virtues are omitted. In the conduct of the articles, the botanical descriptions are very generally fuller in the London edition; though in each, the Linnæan names are mentioned: in this too they are longer, sometimes on account of the more diffuse style, sometimes occasioned by additional information. In this last respect, the articles of 'columba, colchicum, dolichos pruriens, cœnanthe crocata,' and some others, are more valuable: those on the 'pulsatilla,' the 'quassia,' and the 'ricinus,' are, we think, less satisfactory, though farther extended.

The value of the Edinburgh edition is greatly increased by the chemical and pharmaceutical essays in the introduction, extracted from Dr. Webster's Syllabus: in this view it is unrivalled. The additions to Dr. Lewis are very numerous, and highly important. The chemical part is new, accurate, and satisfactory. One or two typographical errors of some consequence have, however, been overlooked; and two passages are marked with inverted commas, as new, though really copied from Lewis. These are trivial imperfections. The descriptions of the new furnaces, and the new table of elective attractions are very valuable; but they would require a plate to enable us to describe them.

From the new articles of the materia medica we can select no specimen; for they are very generally compiled from works pretty well known, and, except in one or two instances, are not very important: it would not have been difficult to have rendered them more useful. We ought, however, to add, that, though on old subjects, the account of the bark and opium, in the Edinburgh edition, are new. The botanical discoveries relating to the first, and the additional knowledge we have acquired of the last, since we have been less afraid of it, seem to require a new compilation. We must be allowed to wish, that the materia medica, in both works, had been fuller in the number of articles; and that the editors had not been confined by the limits of either college.

We shall select no specimen even from the part which we have said is almost wholly new; since its great merit consists in the very clear concise manner, in which subjects, well known to the chemist, are detailed; and we have little room for compilations, even of the greatest merit.—On the whole, after having made a careful comparison of these two works, we must recommend the Edinburgh edition, as the most useful companion and instructor. We cannot give it a higher character than to observe, that, in the present state of science, it is, what the original work was, at the time of its first appearance.

Structure

A Key to the Mystery of the Revelation: whereby all its dark Meanings, being reduced to one regular System, are easily accounted for, and explained. 8vo. 4s. in Boards. Goldsmith.

NO object of theological disquisition seems to have been more fertile of keys, comments, and expositions, than the Revelation of St. John. And indeed the mysterious nature of its contents, and those delivered in a style of the utmost solemnity and grandeur, afford a very natural and proper subject of enquiry to those divines, who have learning and leisure to pursue it. But whoever sits down with an intention of explaining the whole of this ænigmatical book, will probably miscarry in many points. Sir Isaac Newton says, that ‘among the interpreters of the last age, there is scarce one of note, who hath not made some discovery worth knowing, but that our greatest obligations are owing to three particularly, Mede, Vitringa, and Daubuz.’ But neither sir Isaac, nor, we suppose, any rational divine, has adopted all their solutions or conjectures. The learned bishop of Bristol, whose *Illustrations of the Apocalypse* deserve no mean share of credit among those of the present times, observes ‘that to explain it perfectly, is not the work of one man, or of one age; and probably that it will never all be clearly understood, till it is all fulfilled.’ Whoever undertakes to develop its mysteries with wisdom, sobriety, and reverence, will probably contribute some new light for our guidance, and merit the thanks of the serious part of mankind.

The anonymous author of the present publication tells us, in his introduction, that ‘he flatters himself he is possessed of the *happy clue*, which, he adds, was many years ago accidentally discovered to a friend. It is no more, he informs us, than the simple hint of considering these mysteries as a *regular series of ecclesiastical events, from the beginning to the end of time*, but yet variously expressed, agreeably to the seven parts into which they seem naturally to be divided.’ The author gives us to understand, that he has found, from many years experience, the great efficacy of this Key, or manner of explanation now offered to the public; and that it is astonishing to see such a heap of seemingly wild and jarring matters, so easily yielding themselves to order and arrangement, by so simple a means. We were led, by this declaration, to expect more satisfaction than we can confess ourselves to have found. The scheme itself is, however, far from wanting ingenuity; but its simplicity, which the author probably thinks its first recommendation, we are inclined to regard as its principal defect. A key, too simply constructed, cannot be applied with success to the

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wards of a lock very intricately formed. But the author, without doubt, having conceived ideas very different from our own, of the machine he meant to open, lays just claim to approbation, for his sincere and earnest endeavours to effect a very laudable purpose.

After all, we are candid enough to allow, this method may carry conviction to other minds; and if it should not, that at least those discoveries which it has produced, may be of great use to other learned men who shall consider the same subject; and, united with preceding efforts, and the fullness of time, may contribute no contemptible share to the complete eclairsissement of this august mystery. We, therefore, with this performance may fall into the hands of all such as are able and disposed to pay due attention to the subject.

Whatever the Protestant churches abroad, or those of the dissenters at home, may think of this author's scheme in general, we are apt to believe his idea of restraining what relates to Philadelphia, in the prophetic vision, so partially to the church of England, will appear, in their judgment, to want liberality, and perhaps draw upon him the imputation of bigotry; a charge from which, on this account, we cannot imagine him to stand entirely clear, even within the pale of his own church.

The comparison of the seven golden candlesticks in the Revelation, with the candlestick of Moses, consisting of a stem or shaft, and six branches, is ingeniously supported. Our readers may not be displeased to see the passage, which we shall lay before them, with a previous paragraph introducing the subject. There is on one of the letter-press pages a draught representing the candlestick of Moses, our omission of which, we do not apprehend, will create any difficulty to the attentive reader.

The first thing to be considered in the above vision must be the representation of the seven golden candlesticks. In the midst of these was seen walking a glorious appearance of Christ, clothed in all the pomp of majesty, as the great eternal high-priest of his people, both able and willing to avenge them of their enemies, and establish them in perfect peace and glory. These candlesticks are the seven periods or divisions of the church, and are made use of as a proper representation of religion, which is a strong burning light, illuminating the dark gloomy minds of erring mortals, and directing them in the way of endless peace and felicity.

In order the better to illustrate the meaning of these candlesticks, we must compare them with that made by Moses, according to the express command of God. Though these are

re-

represented as standing separate, and that of Moses as being only one; yet, upon a proper comparison, it will be found to have the same typical meaning and tendency, and to be explanatory of many particular terms used in these mysteries. The candlestick of Moses was to be made, with its several apertures, of a talent of pure gold, in the following manner. The middle part of it was the main shaft, or stem; from which proceeded six branches, three branches from one side, and three branches from the other side. The two lowermost, extending opposite to each other, were in a manner united by a knop, formed in that part of the shaft of the candlestick from whence they proceeded, directly under their connexion. Two more branches proceeded in the same manner above them, and two more still above these. Every one of these several branches had lamps fixed to their extremities, and on the top of the middle stem was likewise fixed a lamp.

‘The two lowermost branches, connected together with a knop, may signify the two several periods of the church before the law, here called the churches of Ephesus and Smyrna. The two other branches above them may represent the two churches under the law, called Pergamos, and Thyatira, and the two uppermost branches express the two Christian churches, called Sardis and Philadelphia. The middle stem, being as it were the parent of these branches, is the third Christian church, called here the church of Laodicea, and in other places of Scripture, the Great Church, as being that into which all the nations in the world will bring their glory and honour, as the prophets have every where loudly sung. We may now see the propriety of Christ’s walking in the midst of the seven candlesticks, he giving life and existence to them all, and, like the shaft of Moses’s candlestick, bearing and supporting all the rest. Thus we see, likewise, the unity of our most holy religion, which, with its several branches, forms one glorious system, that will blaze and flourish to the end of time.’

The metaphorical words *blaze* and *flourish*, at the conclusion, are not happily, indeed not properly, connected.

The Book of the Revelation of Saint John the Divine explained; In an historical View of the past and present State of the Christian World compared with the prophetic Visions. By Thomas Vivian, Vicar of Cornwood, Devon. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Dilly.

AFTER the state of doubt and uncertainty in which we were left by the performance last reviewed, we were prepared to receive, without discontent, a much lighter degree

of satisfaction from the perusal of the present work on the same difficult subject, than we gratefully acknowledge it has given us.

This explanation evinces its author to possess no ordinary share of abilities, either natural or acquired; and he appears to have conducted his important undertaking in the true spirit of a Christian divine. Judgement, candour, and moderation, accompanied by a discerning and temperate spirit of conjecture, seem jealously to have watched his footsteps through the sacred labyrinth, and to have enabled him, from extensive reading and erudition, to form a more successful clue than perhaps any preceding adventurer. It gives us pleasure to see this work, as its dedication announces, under the patronage of the author's diocesan, the bishop of Exeter. Its intrinsic merit, though it may not need such a recommendation, at least deserves the credit it will be thought to derive from this circumstance.

Mr. Vivian divides his exposition into seven chapters, which are preceded by a short introduction, shewing the design of the sacred book, and the importance of the subject; and are followed by ample annotations, equally instructive and entertaining.

The plan of the work will be sufficiently conveyed to our readers by the heads of the several chapters, which are as follow.

‘ Chap. I. Containing the Seven Epistles to the Seven Churches of Asia, under the Inspection of St. John; in which are Directions, Reproofs, and Consolations, suited to their different States.—Chap. II. Containing under Seven Seals, opened one after another, the prophetic History of the primitive, pure, and rising Church of Christ: a Period, extending from the Delivery of the Prophecy to the Reign of Constantine, about Two Hundred and Forty Years.—Chap. III. Containing the History of the Christian Church, now delivered from the persecuting Pagan Emperors, but departed from the Simplicity of the Gospel. This Period extending from Constantine, and not yet compleated, is described under Seven Trumpets.—Chap. IV. Exhibiting a permanent View of the internal State of the Christian Church, during the Period of the Seven Trumpets. Here the Contests between the purer and more corrupt Parts are described under Seven Contemporary Visions. As this Part differs from the rest of the Book, it is distinguished by the Title of The Little Book.—Chap. V. Of the Seven Vials to be poured out hereafter on the apostate Part of the Christian Church, and putting an End to the Apo-

Apostacy. This Period will not begin till the Seventh Trumpet sounds, and will probably end at the same Time as the Visions of the Little Book, about the Year 2000.—Chap. VI. Of the Millenium, or the Reign of Christ during the Seventh Millenary of the World, or from the Year 2000 to 3000. After which follows the Resurrection and last Judgment.—Chap. VII. The Glory and Happiness of Heaven, to continue for ever.—The Conclusion.

As a Specimen of the author's style, which we think excels in point of perspicuity and neatness, we subjoin his seventy-fourth annotation on the concluding verse of the Apocalypse; it being difficult, within our limits, to detach such a portion of the text as would, by itself, be clear and intelligible; besides that we are warmly disposed to recommend the whole to the serious perusal and attention of the public.

'Be with you all, Amen.'] On looking back on the visions in this Book, and comparing them with the History of the Christian church, one Reflection seems very natural. Let us suppose that St. John had as clear a view of the events that were to befall the church, when he wrote this book, as we have now by the records of history. Let us suppose that he knew the Christians would be persecuted for the two next centuries, and then gain an establishment under the Christian emperors; together with all the circumstances attending these facts, which we now read in the annals of those times. Let us suppose that he knew perfectly the ravages of the northern nations; the religion of Mahomet, enforced by arms; and the devastations of the Turks. Let us suppose that he knew that a Christian bishop should rise to such a degree of power as to be the tyrant of the church, a promoter of idolatry and various superstitious ceremonies, and a persecuter of them that adhered to the word of God. In a word, let us suppose that he knew as much of the then future history of the church as we know now. Let us farther suppose that he meant to describe all he knew, under a series of prophetic visions, and that with so much clearness as to convince an attentive reader, that he really had such a knowledge of future events, given him by God, for wise purposes.

'Now, supposing all this, it may be asked, could he have executed his design more effectually, and with greater beauty and propriety, than is done in this book?

'For objects in vision, expressive of future events, he would naturally have recourse to the history of the Old Testament, and the circumstances of Jewish worship: for this language had already been adopted by the old prophets, and by the

Christian teachers. He would represent conquerors by war, horses; a destroying enemy by locusts, a burning mountain, or the sea and rivers bloody: the agency of invisible spirits, by Michael the tutelar angel of Judea; or by a serpent or dragon, when he would express the invisible enemies of God's people. As the Jewish church was known by the name Daughter of Zion, it would be natural to signify the Christian church also by a woman; in whom the dress and other circumstances would be expressive either of its purity or corruption; a state of persecution, or worldly prosperity. The active members both of the pure and the corrupt church, would naturally be styled prophets; these being the chief directors of old, both in the pure church at Jerusalem, and in the idolatrous part that worshipped the golden calves at Bethel.

' In a word, were a Jew converted to Christianity to describe, in prophetic language, the future history of the Christian church, made known to him by Revelation, it would probably be just such a composition as this of St. John. The visions would follow in the same order of time as the events were to happen; as is really the case, according to the account given of the book in this exposition: a circumstance in which it differs from all the expositions known to the author.

' And as different actions done at the same time must be related separately, in order to distinguish visions representing contemporary events, from those that described such events as were to follow one another in point of time; this difference might be pointed out by placing the contemporary visions in a separate part, or Little Book.

' This would probably be the case, supposing the writer to have a distinct view of future events, and to be left to himself to describe them in visions and prophetic language. But in fact the case was somewhat different. The writer seems really to have seen the visions which he describes, some on the land, some on the sea, others in the air or heaven, while he was in Patmos. And we cannot conceive any visions better suited to express the events. He described what he saw, and probably might not know himself all that was meant thereby. For he seems to have written all he knew, except in the case of the Seven Thunders, in the tenth chapter, where he was forbidden to write what he heard. Neither this nor any other prophecy is of private suggestion, proceeding from a man's own will or imagination; but holy men of old spake as they were moved by the Holy Ghost: searching what manner of things and times the spirit that was in them did signify.

† Thus

Thus considered, the Revelation has in itself evident proofs of its divine authority. Indeed this, and some other parts of Scripture, that foretel things lately fulfilled, or now fulfilling, have, with respect to us, an increasing evidence of their authority. For when we see events in such a variety of instances corresponding to descriptions, which we know were written many ages before the events happened, and there being not one vision but what admits a fair application (except those which from their place in the book, and other circumstances, are judged to foretel events not yet come to pass) we find ourselves obliged to own, that no man could write this book unless God was with him.

A View of the great Events of the Seventh Plague, or Period, when the Mystery of God shall be finished. Rev. x. 7. By Robert Ingram, A. M. 8vo. 3d. Robinson.

THE leading idea of this pamphlet is, that the mystery of God, under the seventh trumpet, shall owe its accomplishment to the conversion of the Jews. 'The Jews, says the author, when they are converted and restored again to their own land, out of an abhorrence of themselves for their late crime, (Ezek. xxxvi. 21.) and to obliterate it as much as possible, and that they may even outdo the Gentiles on this occasion, will be more remarkably zealous and diligent than ever any people were before, in converting all nations to the Christian faith.' This active and zealous spirit will, according to the author, excite against them hatred, persecutions, and wars, on the part of many of the princes and potentates of the world, who will look upon them as forming conspiracies to overthrow their ancient establishments of civil, as well as religious polity. The cruel treatment they must experience in consequence of this jealousy and hardness of heart, will drive them from one nation and people to another, till at length they shall have carried the light of the Christian revelation to every part of the earth. Those nations or individuals who, after all overtures for their conversion, shall remain obdurate, and turn a deaf ear to the voice of divine truth, as well as that grand corrupter of it, the church of Rome, who shall refuse to be reformed, will at length, though probably at periods of time somewhat successive, draw down that vengeance of the Almighty, represented to St. John, by the seventh angel pouring out his vial into the air, *when* there came a great voice out of the temple of heaven, from the throne, saying, *it is done*. And there were voices, and thunders, and lightnings; and there was a great earthquake, such

as was not since men were upon the earth ; and the great city was divided into three parts ; and the cities of the nations, and great Babylon, came in remembrance before God, to give unto her the cup of the wine of the fierceness of his wrath, &c. Rev. xvi. 17, 18, 19.

There appears little novelty in Mr. Ingram's View of the Seventh Plague, except his idea of its being brought down on the unconverted and unreformed part of the world, in consequence of their persecutions of the enlightened Jews, and their rejection of the Gospel at the hands of these zealous profelytes. This idea is supported on no improbable interpretation of several texts adduced by the author, both from the Old and New Testament.

Mr. Ingram considers this performance as completing and adding confirmation to *An Explanation of the Seven last Plagues*, which he lately offered to the Public.

Letters concerning Education : addressed to a Gentleman entering at the University. By Peter Williams, M. A. Chaplain of Christ-Church College, Oxford. 8vo. 4s. Rivington.

A Young man, just set free from the restraints of the earlier scenes of education, and entering at the university, warm with all the vivid affections of that blooming season of life, exulting in his consciousness of new enlargement and liberty, is not a little obliged to any sincere and intelligent monitor who may offer him advice at this most critical period. His future character, happiness, and estimation in the world, will ever greatly depend on, if they be not generally fixed by his conduct during this stage of his education. The Letters before us are meant, and indeed appear well calculated, not only to direct the first outset, but to regulate each progressive step from his entrance on the academic walk to its termination on the confines of a perilous world.

Our author does not profess to amuse his correspondent with novelties, to suggest any unheard-of plans of study, or recommend any change in academic discipline or customs, (we accuse him of no want of respect for the established modes), but his chief design is to advertise the young student of every thing that will be required of him in the course of his studies, and to encourage his literary pursuits, and the performance of all his duties, by friendly and affectionate admonition. The author has made a frequent, but discreet use of the thoughts of Bacon, Milton, Locke, Harris, Monboddo, and other writers on learning and education, and he has been profuse in his quotations from the ancient Greek and Latin classics, al-
most

most to a degree of pedantry ; unless we suppose, what perhaps in candour we ought, that, as all these passages are untranslated, they were meant to give some exercise to his young correspondent, and, now they are published, to other readers in the same situation. These passages are selected with judgment, and are generally such as the classic scholar cannot but receive with prepossession, and consequently with advantage to the author's probable intention. We do not advance the slight intimation we have given of the want of originality in these Letters, with the least tone of cynical fastidiousness ; for the earnestness, good sense, knowledge, and perspicuity, with which they are written, must claim our unfeigned approbation.

To give our readers a general idea of this performance, we shall transcribe the table of contents.

‘ Of the Importance of making a good Use of one's Time when at the University ; and of the Nature of this Correspondence.—Of having a correct Taste in Matters of little Moment.—Of what depends on the Choice of Company ; and of using Oneself, in Time, to make Observations on Men and Manners.—Of regulating the Passions.—Of entering upon a Course of Study.—Of Perseverance and Regularity in useful Studies.—Of Reading, considered in a general Way.—Of studying Mathematics.—Of studying the Classics.—Une Bagatelle.—Some General Observations on the Greek Tongue, and of studying it.—An Essay on the Prepositions of the Greek.—A cursory View of the Revolutions of ancient Literature.—Some general Observations on the Latin Tongue.—Of attending the public Lectures in experimental Philosophy, &c.—Of studying Logic.—Of employing leisure Hours.—Some historical Account of Logic ; with some Remarks upon Aristotle.—Of taking Care of one's Health.—Of studying History.—Of studying Rhetoric and Eloquence.—Some Account of ancient Oratory ; and of those who made the greatest Figure in it.—A Sketch of a Country Curate's Manner of living.—Some general Hints respecting polite Behaviour.—The same, respecting moral Behaviour.—The Story of Antonio.—Of studying Poetry.—Some historical Account of the Greek and Latin Poetry.—Of studying Ethics.—Recapitulation.—Some general Hints about studying Divinity.’

The following extract from Letter IV. on the subject of the Passions, will give no disadvantageous impression of the author's style, and mode of thinking.

‘ As long as man retains any thing that is decent and rational about him, he can never doubt of the wisdom and propriety of being able to regulate his passions : the question is, whether and how this can be effected. That it can be effected, there remains not the least shadow of doubt. Ill, indeed, would man have

have deserved to be so emphatically styled by the physiologists a Microcosm, if the passions, which make up so important a share of his internal structure, contributed nothing to the excellence of his frame, but tended rather to obliterate the grandeur and destroy the dignity of the noblest part of it. The wonderful contrivance that is observable in this divine fabric, is not confined to the rational faculties, or to the contexture of the human skeleton, but is strikingly extended over the whole. It follows then that the passions, though some of them, upon a slight view, may appear violent and perverse, must be modelled nevertheless, and tempered by nature, so as to tend to the welfare of the individual, and of society; if so, we must necessarily have the power of directing them to just and proper ends: and indulgent nature has not been less careful of giving us this power for the right conduct of life, than of furnishing us with eyes to see, and hands to ward off an impending evil.

At the end of the eleventh Letter, the author has favoured his correspondent with an ingenious Essay on the Prepositions of the Greek Language, written by James Moor, LL. D. late Professor of Greek in the University of Glasgow.

The twenty-second Letter, on a Country Curate's Manner of living, is a very pleasing one, and being more calculated for general amusement than any of the rest, we shall present it to our readers.

'I am wonderfully pleased with your last letter, as it informs me of your intending to pass this short vacation at my little villa. Being convinced that in making me this visit, you act (as you always do) on a noble and exalted principle, the principle of true friendship, I am under no apprehension that my frugal plan of living will be at all disagreeable to you. However, to form some notion how you are likely to spend the ensuing month, see a full account of the manner in which I pass my days: should you think it tedious and abounding with egotism, remember (though we never gain by it), how naturally fond we all are of talking of ourselves.—What we are all then so liable to should be considered with great candour.

'The little village where I am curate, often puts me in mind of the flourishing state of Goldsmith's Auburn, which he has celebrated in one of the best descriptive poems in our language. The house I live in is not large, but neat and convenient; the neighbourhood social, genteel, and sensible; and my salary, though small, yet sufficient to exist upon—*Importuna tamen pauperies abest*. You are not ignorant that my mother and sister live along with me: they are what I may call liberal œconomists.

'Thus retired, I endeavour to discharge the duties of my profession with all possible fidelity. Religion (we are told) is too generally considered as matter of little moment, and is greatly refined in this our age: it, therefore, gives me much com-

comfort to see that my little flock, allowing for the unimproved state of the understanding of most of them, have a good notion of the aim, and nature, and importance of Christianity, and endeavour to live according to its precepts. I contrive to make each family, how poor and obscure soever, a short visit once a week : and in these visits, though I take care that my behaviour shall be such as to command the respect due to their pastor, it is best to put off all unnecessary forms, and endeavour, in the way of conversation, to bring in something pertinent and useful. This I consider as part of my duty, and for that reason I feel no small satisfaction in discharging it :—besides, the good people love and revere me—and, to a reasonable man, is not this alone satisfaction enough ?

‘ This takes up but a little portion of my time : the rest is employed between reading, bodily exercise, and the society of a few friends.

‘ The little learning I gleaned up, when in college, I now find of the greatest consequence, as it enables me to prosecute my studies with pleasure and improvement. A well-written book is a most precious article in one’s viaticum through life ; and should we not pity the man, whatever honours or riches he may have, who has not the convenience or the capacity of enjoying it ?—Indeed to a young person, who in the university has acquired little more than habits of idleness and intemperance, the being thus secluded as it were from the world, must certainly be one of the most irksome things on earth. The sports of the field, without a mixture of that pure and solid pleasure which arises from properly exerting the faculties of the intellect, will soon lose all their zest—all their novelty. The correct Boileau has the same truth, with more elegance—Take it in his words :

“ — *Je ne trouve point de fatigue si rude,
Que l’ennuyeux loisir d’un mortel sans étude.*”

‘ Three or four hours, therefore, in the morning, and from ten to eleven at night, are spent in some serious and regular course of study, in arming myself with strength of mind, and reflexion, sufficient to regulate my life, and support me in every situation of it. And the evenings I divide for the most part (unless when I write a long letter to Eugenio) between reading some agreeable moralist or historian to my little family, and contending at our favourite games of piquet, or backgammon, or the nobler one of chess—How sweet “ to rock the cradle of reposeing age !”

“ But a too studious and sedentary life is productive of low-spiritedness, and tends of course to impair one’s health and good humour.” True :—hence then, one is induced to take one’s gun or fishing-rod, and, attended by trusty Ranger, pass away an hour now and then among the fields in refreshing the mind, and exercising the body ; thus avoiding those many inconveniencies, which a dull and torpid inactivity brings along
with

with it: and in these excursions I am generally fortunate enough to meet with something to make a small dish for my table; for a perch, or a partridge, with a good joint of meat, is almost all the dinner you are to expect.—

“Form’d on the Samian schools or those of Ind
There are who think these pastimes scarce humane;
Yet in my mind (and not relentless I)
His life is pure that wears no fouler stains*.”

“I would not have you mistake me in this matter. He, indeed, especially in my line of life, that minds little more than shooting, or hunting, or dancing, or any other such trifling occupation, is deservedly neglected and despised.—There is a wide difference between using a thing by way of amusement, and making it the principal object of one’s pursuit—the widest imaginable.

“What also furnishes me exercise, is the care and cultivation of my little garden: this I take entirely upon myself. I cannot afford, nor perhaps would I chuse, to employ a man on purpose. And here I make a point to endeavour to excel my neighbours in the neatness of laying out my ground, and in the delicacy of my fruit.—Is it not laudable, Eugenio, even in such trifles, and especially in things of higher moment, whilst we act perfectly consistent with virtue, understood in its most extensive sense, to attend to that well known line of the noble Grecian?

“*Αὐτὸν ἀριστεύει, καὶ ὑπερῶτον ἔμμεναι ἄλλων †.*”

“’Tis thus I exercise and amuse myself.

“But there is no living without society and sensible conversation: this alone can teach us how to apply properly the knowledge we acquire in solitude, polishes our manners, and enlivens the scenes of a retired life: an opportunity of enjoying these pleasures and advantages is afforded me at our excellent neighbour’s, Philoxenus. Here one is always sure to meet with genteel and rational company. Having been formerly engaged in a public and honourable capacity, his connexions are numerous, and among persons of distinction, as well as of sense and merit. I long to introduce you to this worthy man. He loves and encourages whatever is great and amiable in human nature. He is a sincere Christian, and a profound and elegant scholar—and what can a man be more? I never read the character which Pliny ‡ draws of his friend Titus Aristo, without thinking of Philoxenus: the latter indeed is in some respects (and I speak with all impartiality) superior to the brave Roman; but that superiority he derives altogether from his religion. He is, in short, among many others, a living proof, that true Christianity and true philosophy may meet in one and the same person; so

* Art of preserving Health. † Il. 208. ‡ See Pliny’s Epistles, l. 22.

that they are by no means, as some bold men have suggested, inconsistent things.—Far otherwise.

‘ A few other friends I have of considerable value. Though but a poor curate, I take care to behave with proper reserve towards coxcombs, and all narrow-hearted people; and can, thank God, look down both on their smiles and supercilious airs with all possible indifference.—I hate and detest the leveling principle, as unnatural and absurd—But be those also far from me, who can pride themselves merely on being of this or that order of men, of this or that situation of life. Than associate with such, give me rather the friendship of one like Philoxenus, and let me enjoy it far from the haunts of these men. Their wisdom, be it what it will, has not made them truly wise. Their thoughts and notions, however specious, are illiberal all of them, and shallow, and vain. Mere birth, mere money, mere any thing, except virtue and learning, can give no man living any real dignity.

‘ When we meet together, we do all we can to promote innocent mirth and cheerfulness. Some indeed suppose that this is not compatible with true religion. These men have their opinion: we have ours: but as that is totally different, we exclude every thing of the sally kind, and admit nothing but good humour, and temperance, and candour, and universal benevolence, and manly politeness.

“ — Purâ fed libertate loquendi
Seria quisque joci nullâ formidine miscet *.”

‘ Thus we find conversation a most agreeable and instructive exercise, tending to give ease to the whole conduct, and to our language elegance and propriety.

‘ Should any of my rich neighbours, as the country people call them, come and dine with me, I never make much alteration in my dinner: they know my income, and did I live beyond it, they would despise and avoid me. They come, like yourself, from motives of friendship; and not in that starched, formal, and most insipid way, which is so common in modern times.—They live, it is true, in a different manner: I too, had I the means, would probably, on such occasions, enlarge my plan, but still so as to conduct things with oeconomy, simplicity, temperance; without which it is not to live.—But the means are wanting: neque tamen ego invideo aliis bonum, quo ipse careo; fed contra, sensum quendam voluptatemque percipio, si ea, quæ mihi denegantur, amicis video superesse †.

‘ I am sensible that philosophers will tell you, that he who enjoys health and a bare subsistence, enjoys enough; that such gewgaws as riches, conduce not to the real happiness of man; and so forth. Considered merely as riches, no man on earth

* Claudian De Landibus Stiliconis, lib. ii.’

† See Pliny’s Epistles, l. 10. He had no business to say—Neque enim ego, ut multi, invidio.—Pliny had a good deal of pride and vanity in him.”

can admit their assertion in a more extensive sense than myself; but considered as the means of doing good, of living with comfort and satisfaction, it must be allowed, on the other hand, that they then become no improper object of desire even to a philosopher.

“Hæc perinde sunt, ut illius animus, qui ea possidet:
Qui uti scit, ei bona; illi; qui non utitur recte, mala *.”

‘But by no means do I say that the man who has inward peace of mind, who has universal benevolence in his heart, and can think with pleasure on his life and death, is, in any situation, an object of pity or contempt. Quite the reverse—He, and he alone, is the truly happy—the truly great man.—How sweetly does your favourite and most correct author express my notion!

“Fortuna, sævo læta negotio, et
Ludum insolentem ludere pertinax,
Transmutat incertos honores,
Nunc mihi, nunc alii benigna:—
Laudo manentem;—si celeres quatit
Pennas, resigno quæ dedit, et mea
Virtute me involvo, probamque
Paupèriem sine dote quæro †.”

‘But to return.

‘It is thus, my friend, I live. If you can relish this sort of life, hasten to our humble dwelling. We anticipate the pleasure of endeavouring to make things agreeable to you. Between the harpsichord, rural diversions, visiting our worthy neighbours, engaging in friendly conversation, or in the scientific game of Chess, we shall, I hope, prevent the hours from appearing very dull and insipid. Plays, or balls, or operas, or any other public entertainment, here we have none—

“At segura quies, et nescia fallere vita,
Dives opum variarum;—at latis otia fundis,
Speluncæ, vivique lacus;—at frigida Tempe,
Mugitusque boum, mollesque sub arbore somni,—
Non absunt ‡.”—

The twenty-sixth Letter, on *studying Poetry*; and the twenty-seventh, with its continuations, exhibiting *some historical Account of the Greek and Latin Poetry*, though they contain not much that will be thought new by more advanced scholars, offer a good deal of useful and agreeable information to younger students, and display considerable reading and erudition: their contents, indeed, cannot fail at once to prove an interesting and safe guidance through this flowery region of literature.

* Ter. Heauton. A. I. Sc. 2.’

† Lib. iii. 29.’

‡ Georg. ii. 467.’

Discourses on several important Subjects of Christianity: in most of which the Form of an Oration is attempted, by a Concealment of the Method. By the Rev. Daniel Turner, A. M. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Robinson.

THE title-page of this collection of Discourses is undoubtedly intended to give us expectations of something new in form at least, if not in spirit. We cannot allow, however, that a mere Concealment of Method constitutes the Form of an Oration. But, were we inclined to allow such a position, we must observe, that the method of these Discourses is not at all more concealed than that of modern Discourses in general, delivered from the pulpit. The multiplied divisions, and particularly subdivisions of our forefathers, have for many years been out of use; but method is, and must be still retained by all who understand composition; and an attentive hearer or reader will be disappointed, if not able to discern it without unusual application. It is the best preservative against false or defultory reasoning in the composer, and the surest auxiliary to remembrance in those who are addressed. Elegance of composition requires that the joinings of the piece should not be too numerous, clumsy, or obtrusive to sight; but by no means that they should be absolutely concealed. The author of these Discourses has, therefore, in our judgment, set out on a wrong principle; but it is nearly the best thing we have to concede in favour of the composition of the first half of this volume, that we can accuse him of no particular adherence to it.

Though he incurs little blame on this point, instances of loose, or of false reasoning too frequently occur; and sometimes little violations of grammar: awkward, obscure, and affected phrases, too often deform the style; and we were particularly struck with the wild profusion, or rather confusion of mixed and discordant metaphors. We are prepared to produce examples, more than sufficient, of all the imperfections we have mentioned; but as the author, in the latter Discourses, has been considerably more correct, and may be induced, by the intimations we have given, to bestow a careful revision on his second volume, which we hope may not yet be printed, we shall content ourselves with exhibiting a specimen of a certain nauseous and canting style, to which we have the utmost aversion. *Notes of mellifluous gratitude—Past, present, and future, sweetly linked together—How precious is our Jesus!—Love-exalting page, &c.*

The volume before us contains seventeen sermons, the subjects of which are as follow.—I. On Contentment. II. The Christ-

Christian contrasted with the Mosaic Dispensation. III. The Danger of halting between two Opinions. IV. The Character of Christ's Friends, stated and examined. V. Marks, whereby we may know if that Character be our's. VI. Christian Fortitude. VII. An Enquiry into the Nature of religious Meditation. VIII. The Objects of religious Meditation. IX. The Divine Exemplar. X. On the First Commandment. XI. On the Second Commandment. XII. On the Third Commandment. XIII. On Vows. XIV. A Delineation of the virtuous Character. XV. The Rewards of Virtue at Death. XVI. The Rewards of Virtue in a future State. XVII. The Nature and Consequence of impious Principles.

In the thirteenth Sermon, on Vows, Mr. Turner has critically examined the nature of Jephtha's vow; and has, we think, established his own notion of it, against the common opinion of commentators, on solid grounds. A short extract will give our readers some idea of the preacher's particular sentiment.

‘What had misled them (the commentators) is, that the Septuagint and Vulgate, render the words of Jephtha, “Whatsoever cometh forth to meet me,” in the masculine, as if he had said—whosoever, or what person soever cometh forth, whereas the original is really indeterminate. Again, they did not attend to the particle used, which should be taken in the disjunctive sense, *or*, instead of the conjunctive *and*. This is what some judicious critics have since clearly shewn to be the right signification both here and elsewhere: so that Jephtha's words should be rendered “shall surely be the Lord's, *or* I will offer it for a burnt offering.” That is, if it be a human creature, he or she shall be consecrated to the service of God, as some sort of Nazarites were; or if a beast, it shall be offered up for a burnt-offering if it be fit for it; if not, it shall be exchanged, at the pleasure of the priest, for another that is so.’

This Sermon, and those which succeed it are, upon the whole, better written than those preceding. Though we should not recommend any of them as models of fine writing, or even of eloquence, to which, from the title, they ought to have some claim, it would be unjust to deny, that many of them contain a great deal of good matter, and that all are written with a pious earnestness, which may render them conducive to Christian edification. For which reason, as well as because the author has published them partly with a view to acquire some aid toward the education of a numerous young family, we heartily wish them many readers.

A Treatise on the Administration of the Finances of France. By Mr. Necker. Translated from the genuine French Edition, 1784, by Thomas Mortimer, Esq. Three Volumes. 8vo. 1l. 1s. in Boards. Johnson.

IT was a subject of admiration in Europe, to see an obscure man, without prétensions, titles, or connection, at the head of the administration of the finances, in a kingdom whose nobles are eager for employment in the service of the sovereign. Yet mons. Necker maintained his station, if not with dignity, at least with the crédit of profound attention, and inflexible integrity; and France owes to these qualities, and to the humane attentions of madame Necker, some very salutary regulations. If we look more nearly into the subject, we suspect it will appear, that our author was more distinguishable as a financier than a statesman; he was an exact accountant rather than a great minister, as he has been ostentatiously called. While confined to his office, he excited no jealousy; when he aimed at a seat in the council of state, he soon fell. His fall, however, seems to be marked with none of the characteristics of a great mind. In his introduction, he complains of it, and complains with a feminine weakness; his tears are said to have been drawn for the loss which the state has sustained; but the mind which feels its own dignity will permit no consideration to detract from it. He may regret his fall, and the misfortunes of his country; but he will be still himself, unruffled and unmoved.

As a financier, mons. Necker acquired much crédit. He provided resources for the first years of an expensive war, without additional taxes, and left more ample supplies in the treasury than he found in it. It has been indeed suggested, that, by these exertions, the strength of the state was so much weakened as to require supplies more than equivalent in the subsequent period; but there is much reason to think, that these suggestions are rather the shafts of calumny, aimed at the only part where a wound could, without danger of detection, be inflicted. We know the wonderful effects of order and regularity in every department of this kind; and we see nothing in his actions which may not be accounted for by these, joined with the details which we meet with in the volumes before us. They are indeed rich in the treasures of political arithmetic; the facts are valuable, because they are probably very near the truth; but it is for facts only that we esteem them. The reflections are often trifling and jejune; sometimes erroneous. We have many works on political arithmetic in our own language,

guage, of a much higher value with respect to their reasoning.

In the introduction, filled with much egotism, and some very trifling subjects, our author displays what a minister of finance ought to be; and what *he* was. A man of real dignity does not speak of himself; but we shall not dwell on it; for we own that it has diminished *our* respect for mons. Necker. He then proceeds to an account of all the taxes in France. The particulars are not easily understood by an English reader; so that we may observe that they exceed five hundred and eighty-five millions of livres*. These are followed by general reflections on the extent of the taxes; and this chapter is distinguished by candour and humanity. Our author does not seem to be well informed on the subject of the British taxes, their comparative burthen on the poor, or the quantity of circulating specie. We think that he is mistaken on all these subjects; but they are of little consequence to his general argument. The expences in collecting the taxes is then examined, and found to be about $10\frac{4}{5}$ per cent: we suspect that, considering every circumstance, England is not so cheaply served. The two next chapters are on the savings which might be still made in the collection; but these regulations are local, and would not be easily understood: our author's plans, perhaps by the superior weight of influence, were only partially tried, and, after trial, were rejected. The two following chapters are on the conversion of all the taxes into a land or a poll-tax. The former of these contains some very judicious reflections; but we have seen them already in various shapes: the next chapter is on the number of revenue officers. Mons. Necker then proceeds to the population of the kingdom, which he thinks amounts to twenty-five, or nearly twenty-six millions of inhabitants. But we much suspect his data; for the strange disproportion of births in the years 1773 and 1774, which, in the latter year exceeded the former by 39,170, an excess not progressional, or in any way accounted for, leads us to doubt greatly of the accuracy with which the lists are kept. In the year 1777, the births exceed those of the preceding and succeeding years, by above fifty thousand. The causes of the variation of population, which mons. Necker mentions, will

* Instead of actually reducing the several sums, we shall add an easy rule for this purpose. Strike off from the number of livres the two figures on the right hand, multiply the rest by 4, increase the product by one-tenth of itself, and the sum is the answer required. Thus 100,000 livres is equal to

$$£. 4400; \text{ for } 100,000 \times 4 = 4000, \text{ and } 4000 + \frac{4000}{10} \text{ or } 4000 + 400 = 4400.$$

not account for these great disproportions, nor these sudden changes. We shall extract the following chapter entire, as it recapitulates the whole:

‘ The whole extent of the kingdom, exclusive of Corsica; consists of twenty-six thousand nine hundred and fifty-one square leagues, twenty-five to a degree; consequently, of two thousand two hundred and eighty-two, two-fifths toises, (French fathoms) per league.

‘ Its population consists of twenty-four millions six hundred seventy-six thousand inhabitants *.

‘ This allows nine hundred and sixteen individuals, for every square league.

‘ Its taxes amount to five hundred and eighty-four millions, four hundred thousand livres †, which is twenty-one thousand six hundred and eighty four livres per square league.

‘ And twenty-three livres, thirteen sous, eight deniers per head, for persons of all ages, and of both sexes.’

Monf. Necker then enumerates the taxes, immunities, population; extent, and principal resources of each generality; into which the kingdom is divided. The facts in this chapter are numerous and valuable; and the exactness of the returns in general cannot be suspected. But there is much reason to think that the population is exaggerated; that of the city of Paris, in particular, estimated at about six hundred and fifty thousand, should certainly be much reduced, if we would come near the truth. Next follows an account of the extent, taxes, and population of Corsica, and the colonies. Corsica, we find, does not produce a sufficient income to defray the expences of its civil establishment. The first volume concludes with general observations on the reform of the taxes, which we cannot abridge: indeed they are chiefly local, and not distinguished by their depth; nor are they of that general comprehensive nature, as to be easily applied to other countries:

In the second volume, the first object is a proposal to equalize the taxes on salt. This substance forms a very considerable source of the French revenue; though, as usual, when taxes are carried so high, the means of raising a supply is often destructive to it. The contraband trade in salt exceeds the greatest expectations; and the brigades, to prevent this trade in general, we find amount to twenty-three thousand men. The whole of the subject is well and clearly explained. The tobacco tax is next explained, which, like all the other French

* * Twenty-four millions eight hundred thousand inhabitants, including Corsica, whose population consists of one hundred and twenty-four thousand souls.

† Five hundred and eighty-five millions, including the taxes paid by Corsica, which amount to six hundred thousand livres.

taxes, by various immunities, is partial, oppressive, and with difficulty examined. The third chapter is more general, and contains 'Observations on the Duties on Importation and Exportation; with Reflections and Researches on the Balance of the Commerce of France.' In considering this subject our author, in some instances, makes the proper allowances; but in others he is deficient. The following observations deserve attention.

'I will suppose that, either from fixed ideas, or from conjectures, a general statement is made of the importations and exportations of a kingdom; a valuation in money must necessarily be made of each part of this double commerce, if we wish to know the amount of the balance of the commercial exchanges; now this valuation, as it is usually made, is extremely imperfect.

'Let us apply this proposition in the first place, to merchandise imported, and let us take France for an example, that we may avoid the confusion that would arise from the generic words of country, or kingdom.

'Let a valuation then be made in France, of the merchandise of foreign countries, according to the current price of those commodities in the centre of the kingdom, or in one of its principal commercial towns; the debt contracted by the state will, by this method, be greatly exaggerated; for the current price of foreign commodities in France, is composed not only of the sum paid for them to the nation who has sold them, but likewise of the duties of entry exacted at the different custom-houses; and lastly, of the profit or interest on the advances made by the French merchants, who have imported them as objects of trade: yet, of these three articles just recapitulated, only the sum paid to the foreign seller is a debt of the kingdom.

'The expences of carriage, or of freight, are likewise comprised in the current value of foreign merchandise; now if this freight has been gained by the national shipping, a still greater deception will happen in the statement of the balance of commerce, if the merchandize imported is valued according to the current price in the kingdom.'

The facts on which his estimates are founded, are not very particularly and accurately stated; but he estimates the balance in favour of the kingdom at seventy millions of livres. This balance chiefly arises from the products of their West India islands, and the foreign sale of their manufactures. This is insisted on with some force; but it must be very evident, without any particular assistance from the custom-house books. We allow France to be an ingenious and flourishing nation; but, if the subject were examined with a critical eye, we suspect that the balance would be somewhat lessened. Many deductions occur

to

to us, which the author has not made. We ought to add that, in monf. Necker's opinion, the state of exchange is but a superficial and erroneous method of judging of the favourable balance in the-commerce of a nation.

The fourth chapter contains general ideas on the reform of the customs; and the four following ones relate to the constitution of, and the arrangements in, the provincial assemblies. The observations on these subjects are chiefly local.

The next object of attention is the clergy. They are exempt from most of the taxes, and their subsidies are in general *free gifts*; but they tax themselves for this purpose, and they raise above ten millions of livres annually. About two hundred and fifty thousand of these are appropriated to the Royal Hospital of Invalids. The king adds two millions five hundred thousand livres to the residue; and the whole is applied to the general debt, occasioned by the free gifts, and to other public works. The whole income of the clergy is *estimated* at one hundred and ten millions of livres. Some very just and humane reflections, 'on the disposal of benefices,' conclude this subject.

The eleventh chapter contains 'Researches and Reflections on the national Debt of France, and the Means of paying it.' Schemes of this kind are so often visionary, and, from various causes, so seldom practicable, that we shall only observe, that monf. Necker proposes to convert the funds into life-annuities. The state of the public expences in France, is still less an object of our attention; but the facts are the more curious, since they have not been before published; and they will afford some valuable information respecting the state of the kingdom, and a comparison of the French and English finances. The volume concludes with a supplement, relating to some little differences between our author's account, and that in the French edict, in 1784.

The first part of the third volume relates to the weight of money, and circumstances relative to the coinage. The subject is complicated, and too long for our investigation at present: that part of it which relates to the profit of the sovereign on coinage, is in a great measure new, and, with a few restrictions, we believe very correct. The quantity of specie in France is said to amount to two thousand two hundred millions of livres. The increase of specie during the last peace, was considerable, and it is calculated by our author with some accuracy: the increase in other nations is examined and calculated; but with so few foundations in fact, that we shall not follow the detail. The advantages and inconveniences, arising from an increase of the specie, and the progress of luxury, are connected with the former subject, and examined, at some length, with great propriety.

The three next chapters are miscellaneous ; ' on the Fortunes of Financiers ;' ' Reflections on the Solicitations of the Great, and the Necessity of resisting them with Firmness ;' and ' on the Places which enoble the Possessors :' the number of the last excites our author's attention ; and he labours to shew that these kinds of rewards have been misapplied, and are injurious to the kingdom.

Monsr Necker then proceeds to work-houses, hospitals, and prisons. All these were much improved during his superintendence ; but he candidly allows, that farther improvements are still necessary. There are, we find, above seven hundred public hospitals, and about one hundred private smaller ones ; the number accommodated are from one hundred to one hundred and ten thousand persons : the incomes (of which nearly one-fourth belongs to the Hotel Dieu, and the great hospital in Paris), exceed eighteen millions of livres. For the army and navy, there are about seventy institutions of this kind ; and the usual number of sick is about six thousand. After some observations on the necessary reformation, mons. Necker procured the establishment of one, under the strictest regulations ; and the *weekly* expence of each patient was, in 1779, equal to four shillings and eleven pence sterling ; but it gradually increased ; though in 1783, it was only five shillings and three pence. We mention these facts, for the example of the different hospitals in this kingdom. The very necessary reforms in the Hotel-Dieu were made by mons. Necker ; and the new regulations superintended by madame Necker, who was also very instrumental in the improved management of the new institutions. Mons. Necker also reformed the prisons ; and his regulations are very useful and humane : they may be attended to, and imitated with advantage ; but is the Bastille in its former state ? it is not mentioned in this work, except to enumerate expences requisite to its support.

Some farther reflections on the ' Commerce of Corn ;' inquiries ' on the clearing of Waste Lands,' then follow ; but they present nothing of sufficient importance to induce us to enlarge. ' Reflections on the Interest of Money, the Maintenance of Public Credit, and the Circulation of Specie, are of more importance ; but our article is already extensive. A great part of this chapter is employed in arguments to establish the credit of the French funds ; but, though many of the circumstances supposed necessary for this purpose, concurred in 1782, the loan of that year was not filled. Mons. Necker says, because one of the conditions was a reimbursement, which was distrusted,—a distrust always fatal where, in the best situation, the lender depends on the life of the monarch. Our author contrasts the facility with which the loans

were

were filled in England, and gives many good reasons for the different events, but the first and greatest is general public confidence, which occasions a struggle to be in the first lists, because the subscriptions may be again immediately sold with advantage. The great number of subscribers is therefore a little fallacious.

We next receive an account of an institution established at Paris, instead of the pawn-brokers, called *Mont de Piété*; and afterwards some observations on, or rather a defence of, the mode of borrowing on life-annuities. The most useful method of receiving the assistance which the liberality of patriotism may offer, is then explained, and the impolicy of the *droits d'aubane* clearly pointed out. The twenty-sixth chapter is on Banks, particularly the Bank of England, and its illegitimate child, the *Casse d'Escompte*, which is perhaps not so firmly re-established as *monf. Necker* supposes. This chapter, however, contains some very valuable information. The rest of the work is so miscellaneous, that we must content ourselves with transcribing the titles of the several chapters: 'Regularity in the Royal Exchequer; Ideas of the Establishment of a general Board, for Researches and Information; on the Economy of Time; the Spirit of System; the Nomination to the Offices of Intendants of Provinces; the Change of Principles and Persons in the Administration of the Finances; a concise Enumeration of the Sources of the Power of France; and a Declamation against War, with Arguments against it in a political View, and Answers to its Apologists.' The volume concludes with the author's reasons for undertaking the work; and this part resembles too much the introduction.

We cannot conclude this article, without our commendations of the translator, who has executed this uncommonly difficult task with great clearness and precision. Those will best understand his merits who have looked into the original; which, to ordinary readers, is scarcely intelligible, from the numerous terms seldom met with in the usual publications.

The Structure and Physiology of Fishes explained, and compared with those of Man and other Animals. Illustrated with Figures. By Alexander Monro, M. D. of Edinburgh. Large Folio. 2l. 2s. in Boards. Robinson.

THIS is another attempt of the industrious professor, (whose 'Observations on the Nervous System,' we reviewed in our fifty-sixth volume), to illustrate a subject hitherto imperfectly understood. This work, however, may be considered

as anatomical rather than physiological; for we have very little satisfactory information relating to the different functions of these animals. The structure is illustrated with plates; but, with a very few exceptions, they do not deserve a better character than those which *deformed* Dr. Monro's last work. A few of these plates, engraved by J. Beugo, have a clearness and brilliancy which are strongly contrasted by the black indistinct engravings of Mr. Donaldson: yet a few of this last gentleman's works seem to be rising into a kind of relief: we hope they are the dawnings of improvement.

The anatomy of fishes was not wholly unknown. About the latter end of the last century, Dr. Samuel Collins published two volumes in folio, on the anatomy, physiology, and pathology, of the human body, illustrated by that of different animals. Fishes contribute to the illustration: many seem to have been dissected, and numerous representations of their structure are subjoined. The plates are engraved by Faithorne, a man of no mean abilities, and they are executed with great strength and clearness. The inaccuracies in the human anatomy have lessened the character of that work; and it is now in little credit, or almost unknown. Yet the structure of animals is delineated with tolerable fidelity; and we must confess that we have been indebted to it for more clearly comprehending some of Dr. Monro's descriptions. The part of the work before us, which describes the lymphatics and lacteals of aquatic animals, is entirely new, and more certainly original.

Our author begins with describing the heart, vessels, and circulation of fishes. The distribution of the blood in the gills is astonishingly extensive, and every particle must be exposed to the water.

‘ For in each side of the body of a skate there are four double gills, or gills with two sides each, and one single gill; or there are in all eighteen sides or surfaces on which the branchial artery is spread out. On each of these sides there are about fifty divisions, or doublings of the membrane of the gills. Each division has on each side of it one hundred and sixty subdivisions, doublings, or folds of its membrane; the length of each of which, in a very large skate, is about one-eighth of an inch, and its breadth about one-sixteenth of an inch. So that in the whole gills there are one hundred and forty-four thousand subdivisions or folds, the two sides of each of which are equal to the sixty-fourth part of a square inch; or the surface of the whole gills in a large skate is equal to two thousand two hundred and fifty square inches, that is, to more than fifteen square feet, which have been supposed equal to the whole external surface of the human body. When, after a good injection of

of the artery, a microscope is applied, the whole extent of the membrane of the gills is seen covered with a beautiful net work of exceedingly minute vessels.'

In the observations on the circulation of the blood we find remarks both of a trifling and an important nature, Dr. Monro thinks, that the thick coats of the bronchial veins really possess a muscular power; in proof of this opinion, he alleges, that in the mesenteric veins, and vena portarum of an ox, he can demonstrate a truly muscular coat. Mr. Hunter, we are told, has been successfully employed in some experiments, to ascertain the real muscular power of the blood-vessels, independent of their elasticity; and we hope he will enable us to resume the subject by their publication. Considerable dilatations in the abdominal veins, are owing, in Dr. Monro's opinion, to the temporary retardation of the blood, by the superior weight of water; but, as they occur in the lymphatic system also, it is probable that they accomplish some other and more latent purpose.

'The last remark I shall make is, That, the circulation of the blood being carried on in the cartilaginous fishes in the same manner as in the osseous or pisces of Linnæus, and the whole mass of blood passing through their gills, they must breathe regularly and uninterruptedly to furnish blood to the brain and other organs, or they cannot possess the *pulmo arbitrarius* as is supposed by Linnæus: so that there appears no just reason for classing them with the amphibia,

'In the animals which are commonly reckoned amphibious, to wit, the tortoise, the frog, the lizard, and the serpent, a part only of the mass of blood passes through the lungs. In the frog and common small lizard, branches are sent off from the aorta, which, if we may judge from their size, convey about one-third part of the whole mass. In the tortoise, the serpent, and such of the lizard tribe as have two auricles and ventricles, a greater proportion passes through the lungs. In the sea tortoise, the blood from the lungs passes into the left auricle, and from it into the left ventricle. From the left ventricle it is transmitted, by transverse canals or holes in the septum between the ventricles, into the right ventricle, where it is mixed with the blood which is sent from the *venæ cavæ* through the right auricle. All the arteries, therefore, take their rise from the right ventricle; and the pulmonary arteries are considerably smaller than those which supply the place of our aorta.

'In all these animals, therefore, every part of the body may receive a considerable portion of blood, although the respiration and free passage of the blood through their lungs be interrupted. Hence they are not under the same necessity with the mammalia birds, and fishes, of breathing frequently, regularly, or alternately; or they enjoy the *pulmo arbitrarius*.'

Dr.

Dr. Monro next describes the mucous ducts which are very beautiful : they are attended by very numerous nerves ; and, in one instance, the nerve becomes pellucid, so that the author thinks its nature is also changed.

The watery liquors in the head, pericardium, and peritonæum of fishes, next claim his attention. They are salt, but contain only about half the quantity of salt usually found in the same bulk of sea-water : in some instances, much less. There are passages in some fishes, from whence the water may pass out ; but a valve seems to be interposed to exclude the entrance of any. In the skate too, the pericardium opens into the abdomen ; but, from the structure of the duct, nothing can pass from thence into it. Dr. Monro thinks that fluids may pass the valve, and that these liquors are derived from the sea ; but they are less salt than sea-water ; and besides, in that way, they cannot get into the head or the pericardium. The reason, which he appears to have overlooked, is probably the following ; fishes, though they live in salt water, have no salt in their composition ; and their absorbent vessels seem to separate the pure water from the element in which they live ; yet, in different circumstances, this operation is not so perfectly performed as may be necessary for the preservation of the animal ; so that another outlet is necessary for the deleterious substance. It is, therefore, separated by the vessels of the pericardium and abdomen, and from thence passes out. That the liquor is recrementitious is evident from its being in some instances connected with the urinary organs ; and it is by no means certain, that it has not some outlet from the head. In man we find there are secretory organs, to throw out what may have been absorbed by the indiscriminate operation of other vessels ; so that our opinion is supported by analogy. The other secreted organs, and their liquors, afford nothing which deserves attention, or that we can abridge.

The most curious organ of fishes is the swimming bladder. Dr. Monro describes its various appearances, and the communications, in some genera, between it and the stomach : he renders it probable, that the air either passes from the stomach, or is produced by secretion. This subject, however, is left in a very imperfect state : we shall supply the imperfection by a few facts, and some conjectures. It is highly probable that, in some instances, this bag lessens the specific gravity of the fish, and contributes to raise it in the water ; but this is not always the case, for the bag is very small, in proportion to the size of the animal, and not capable of any very great enlargement. This effect is therefore a secondary one, and does not merit much consideration. The primary one is probably

to prevent bad air from mixing with the fluids, or as a receptacle for that which has been admitted. We know that phlogisticated air is deleterious to fishes, and that they die if they have not a supply of this element, in a proper state. At the same time, they cannot always discharge the foul air, contaminated by their bodies, or supplied from their food; so that in some instances they drive it into this receptacle from the stomach; in others, it is secreted into it from the blood. Dr. Monro has not examined the nature of the air in the bladder; but we know it to be noxious, and it gives probability to our accounts. On every supposition, some excretory duct is necessary; though none has been yet discovered, and no one has thought of the means by which it is to be discharged. We would suggest, though with great diffidence, that from the addition of phlogiston, in consequence of its being confined within an animal body, it may be changed to water, and exude through the pores into the abdomen, from whence there is a ready discharge. We know that water, in an attenuated state, will pervade much closer membranes.

Dr. Monro next describes the absorbents of fishes, with great accuracy; he has traced them to the surface, and demonstrated that they are a distinct system of vessels, with the same properties as the human lymphatics. As those of fishes have, however, no valves, it is probable that their coats, though thin, are really muscular. Our author then attempts to refute Mr. Hewson's opinion relating to the spleen, by some observations on the spleen of fishes, and to establish his own title to the discovery of the lymphatic system, in these animals. The refutation is very successful; but we believe it is now unnecessary: we are sorry so much has been said about the discovery, by men of abilities; for, in the state in which this branch of anatomy then was, it lay ready for the first and most superficial enquirer.

Our author proceeds to the brain, and organs of sense in fishes. The organs of seeing and smell have been often described: those of herrings have been already described by Mr. Hunter, who is not, however, once mentioned by our author. It must be acknowledged, that the description of the ear, in this volume, is more full, particular, and discriminated, than that of Mr. Hunter, in the Philosophical Transactions. We made large extracts from that paper, in our fifty-fifth volume, page 410; and need not now enlarge on the subject, or compare the accounts.

The experiments on hearing in water, are very instructive. We find that the tremors of the air are communicated readily to the water, and those of water to air; so that tremors, ex-

cited

cited by percussion, can be heard when the head is either above or under water. When a bell is plunged in water, the sound is more grave than in air; the bell, which in air sounded the highest G of a common harpsichord, in water sounded a fifth false lower, or the C sharp under G.

From the account of the eyes of fishes, we shall select the following remarks.

‘ Upon the whole, therefore, we are led to the conclusion, that the primary use of the almost completely spherical figure of the crystalline lens of fishes, or great convexity especially of the anterior part of their lens, which I find projects in the cod about seven fortieths of an inch beyond the iris, is to take in a large field of the objects around them; which was particularly necessary, as the motion of their neck is inconsiderable.

‘ To enable them, with the same length of the axis of the eye as in the quadruped, to collect into a focus on the retina the rays of light coming from the dense medium of water, four chief circumstances concur.

‘ In the first place, we observe that their crystalline lens is more convex, or composed of portions of smaller spheres, than in land-animals.

‘ In the next place, we have found that their crystalline lens is, in corresponding parts, much more dense than in animals which live in air.

‘ Thirdly, that the lens in fishes possesses powers of refracting light far beyond what have been calculated by authors, who have proceeded on the supposition that these powers were proportioned nearly to its specific gravity.

‘ In the last place, the vitreous humour of fishes being lighter than that of land-animals, the rays of light issuing from their lens will be refracted in a greater degree, or brought sooner to a focus.’

The next subject of enquiry is the anatomy of the sepia ligo, the ink-fish. Our author suspects the black fluid to be the bile of the animal; and to be merely a recrementitious liquor.

The description of the anatomy of the echinus marinus, was read to the Philosophical Society, at Edinburgh, in the year 1761. We are sorry that we can neither analyse or abridge it; for it is extremely curious: we can only hint, that the perforations in the shell of this animal are intended for the passage of absorbents; and that absorption seems to be carried on by means of muscular action. With this account the volume concludes.

This work contains fifty tables, so that it would lead us too far, even with the utmost conciseness, to explain their subjects. It is enough to remark, that they are intended to illustrate every part of the description; and, if properly executed, would

would have been very valuable: at present, they supply the necessary defects of language very imperfectly.

If we examine this work as a whole, we shall find great reason to commend the industry and attention required in so many laborious dissections; we cannot praise the author very highly for acute comprehension, or penetrating sagacity. His inductions are, however, generally clear; and, so far as they extend, always accurate. We wish him to pursue the subject; for much remains to be examined, and many doubts, particularly in the physiology of fishes, to be elucidated.

A new System of Modern Geography: or, a Geographical, Historical, and Commercial Grammar; and present State of the several Kingdoms of the World. By William Gutbrie, Esq. The Astronomical Part by James Ferguson, F. R. S. The Third Edition, with great Additions and Improvements, and a copious Index. Illustrated with a Set of large and accurate Maps. 4to. 11. 15s. in Boards; the Maps half-bound. Dilly and Robinson.

WE have seldom examined a work so useful in its original form, and so much improved in the subsequent editions, as the System now before us. It contains such a fund of information, drawn from various sources, that it has a powerful claim to be considered as a repository of valuable knowledge.—Of the improvements in the present edition, a general account is given in the following advertisement.

‘ The original Preface so fully explains the general plan of the work, that it seems only necessary to give some account of those additions and alterations which the fluctuation of states and of human affairs renders unavoidable.

‘ Since the last quarto edition came from the press, the stock of geographical and political knowledge has been much increased, by the publication of some valuable accounts of travels and voyages. These have been carefully perused; and from them are now added many interesting particulars relative to Russia, Poland, Sweden, Denmark, Spain, Switzerland, the two Sicilies, the East Indies, the islands in the Pacific Ocean, the western parts of North America, Hudson’s Bay, and other places.

‘ Amidst the public events which afford matter for historical narrative, this edition contains a faithful account of the most important transactions in the late war between Great Britain and her colonies, and also with the powers of France, Spain, and Holland; the several steps leading to a general peace, and the establishment of the independence of the American states. Nor has less attention been paid to the dispute between the emperor of Germany and the Dutch; and to the various changes which have happened among other states on the continent.

• In those parts of the work which relate to the origin of nations, and their manners and systems of religion, the additions are too numerous to be specified. The latest discoveries and observations, from the most approved authorities, are blended with the former narrative; and enlargements, equally authentic, have been made with respect to the geographical and historical accounts of each country.

• That the work might farther merit its distinguished reputation, the maps have not only been accurately examined, and greatly improved, by the most eminent artists, but seven new plates are added, illustrating the alterations resulting from the establishment of the American states, the dismemberment of Poland, the late acquisitions of Russia, and other European powers, the discoveries in the Southern Ocean*, &c.

• When the great number of maps, with the addition of at least one hundred pages of letter-press, and a considerable enlargement of the Index, are considered, the proprietors may with truth assure the public, that the alteration in the price is far from being adequate to the attention, pains, and expence, which have been employed to give this work an additional claim to general notice and approbation.

This advertisement does not exaggerate the merits of the present edition, and, in some respects, leaves them undisplayed, particularly with regard to chronological, and other scientific improvements.

In the account of the northern countries, we observe that due attention has been paid to Mr. Cox's judicious remarks, relative not only to the topographical state of the different nations, but their revenues, institutions, and many miscellaneous circumstances, derived from this intelligent traveller, and others of respectable authority.

In what relates to the Netherlands, we perceive that the history is enlarged; and a perspicuous account is given of the late differences between the Dutch and the emperor of Germany.

Many enlargements are made to the narrative concerning Switzerland, and likewise to that of Spain and the Two Sicilies, from the entertaining Travels of Mr. Swinburne. We observe also, that the history of Spain and Portugal, which in the former editions was delivered conjunctly, is now very properly separated; and a particular account is given of the sovereigns, and all the memorable transactions in each kingdom.

* Besides a large chart of the World; comprehending the tracks and discoveries of captain Cook, &c. the maps of Hindostan, China, Russia, England, the Seven United Provinces, the Austrian, French, and Dutch Netherlands, the British dominions in America, and of the Thirteen United States, are entirely new.

In describing the manners and customs of the Turks in Europe and Asia, the editor has added to the narrative, from different sources, among which we find the respectable authorities of colonel Mance, and baron de Tott. We shall insert the following description of Constantinople.

Constantinople is at this day one of the finest cities in the world by its situation and its port. The prospect from it is noble. The most regular part is the Besestlin, inclosed with walls and gates, where the merchants have their shops, excellently ranged. In another part of the city is the Hippodrome, an oblong square of 400 paces by 260, where they exercise on horseback. The Meidan, or parade, is a large spacious square, the general resort of all ranks. On the opposite side of the port are four towns, but considered as a part of the suburbs, their distance being so small, a person may easily be heard on the other side. They are named Pera, Galata, Pacha, and Tophana. In Pera, the foreign ambassadors and all the Franks or strangers reside, not being permitted to live in the city; Galata also is mostly inhabited by Franks and Jews, and is a place of great trade. The city abounds with antiquities: the tomb of Constantine the Great is still preserved. The mosque of St. Sophia, once a Christian church, is thought, in some respects, to exceed in grandeur and architecture St. Peter's at Rome. The city is built in a triangular form, with the Seraglio standing on a point of one of the angles, from whence there is a prospect of the delightful coast of the Lesser Asia, which is not to be equaled. When we speak of the seraglio, we do not mean the apartments in which the grand signior's women are confined, as is commonly imagined, but the whole inclosure of the Ottoman palace, which might well suffice for a moderate town. The wall which surrounds the seraglio is thirty feet high, having battlements, embrasures, and towers, in the style of ancient fortifications. There are in it nine gates, but only two of them magnificent; and from one of these the Ottoman court takes the name of the Porte, or the Sublime Porte, in all public transactions and records. Both the magnitude and population of Constantinople have been greatly exaggerated by credulous travellers. It is surrounded by a high and thick wall, with battlements after the Oriental manner, and towers, defended by a lined but shallow ditch, the works of which are double on the land side. The best authors think that it does not contain above 800,000 inhabitants, three-fourths of whom are said to be Greeks and Armenians, and the rest are Jews and Turks. Others suppose the inhabitants not to exceed 600,000. The city hath been frequently assailed by fires, either owing to the narrowness of the streets and the structure of the houses, or the arts of the Janizaries. In August 1784, a fire broke out in the quarter situate towards the harbour, and spread into other quarters, and about 10,000 houses (most of which had been rebuilt since the fire in 1782) were consumed.

Amidst

Amidst the enlargements made by the editor, he has not been inattentive to Palestine, that country which must always be held in particular veneration by every Christian reader. We shall only transcribe the following passage.

Under the government of Sheik Dâher, the ally of the famous Ali Bey, some part of Palestine revived. He enlarged the buildings and walls of St. John de Acre, formerly Ptolemais, and shewed great indulgence to the Christians. Its inhabitants were lately computed at 40,000. Caifa, which stands on the declivity of Mount Carmel, distant about 20 miles from Acre, was also new built and enlarged by Daher. The ancient Joppa, now Jaffa, 50 miles west from Jerusalem, stands on a rocky hill, hath an harbour for small vessels, and its circumference is about two miles. The number of inhabitants is 7000; the western part of the town is inhabited by Christians. The present state of Ramah is deplorable, its walls in decay, and most of the houses empty, though the number of inhabitants is still between 3 and 4000. Not a house is standing of the once magnificent city of Cesarea, but the remains of the walls testify its former grandeur. Azotus is about two miles in circumference, the inhabitants are near 3000, and mostly Mahometans: an old structure is shewn here, with fine marble pillars, which is said to be the house that Sampson pulled down, when insulted by the Philistines. Gaza is still respectable, it extends from east to west three miles, and is a mile in breadth, divided into the old and new town. The last is inhabited by the inferior Turks and Arabs: the number of the inhabitants is reckoned to be 26,000. It is about five miles from the sea; and outside the town is a market for the country people to dispose of their commodities to the inhabitants, for they are not permitted to enter the town. The country around is very fertile, but its chief produce is corn, oil, wine, honey, bees-wax, flax, and cotton.

Additions are made to the account of Hindostan, relative to its divisions under different princes and rajahs, its government, inhabitants, religion, and customs. These subjects had formerly not been treated with sufficient precision, and, from our increasing connection with that country, they become daily more interesting to British readers. Additional accounts of Egypt, and its chief cities, are likewise introduced; and the late revolutions in that country are distinctly related.

In the account of America, equal attention is observable. In particular, we meet with an accurate description of the remaining British provinces in that quarter, with those now denominated the United States.

With regard to the discoveries of the late circumnavigators, many pages are added to the former description of the islands in the South Pacific Ocean, and the researches which have been

been made in the western parts of North America. The circumstances are selected with judgment, and afford a comprehensive view of those numerous acquisitions lately made to geographical knowledge.

We observe large additions in what relates to the history of the British empire, accompanied with a detail of the important transactions which preceded and followed the last general peace. — The state of the East India company, now so closely connected with the most essential interests of the nation, is a subject which merits great attention. The editor has accordingly given a distinct account of their possessions and trade, and of the late act of parliament for the regulation of the company's affairs.

So numerous are the improvements which have been made in the present edition of this valuable work, rendered still more worthy of the public favour, by the maps with which it is now enriched, in a separate volume. We must, therefore, acknowledge it to be the most comprehensive, and most useful system, of the kind, that has hitherto appeared.

The History of Wales, in Nine Books: With an Appendix. By the Rev. William Warrington. 4to. 1l. 1s. in Boards. Johnson.

AT commencing the review of this work, we are naturally led to a comparison of nations in a state of civilization and barbarism. It is the glorious privilege of the former not only to flourish in the arts of peace, but to confer superior lustre on the warlike achievements of their own people; while the latter are destined to live in rude obscurity, and, perhaps, to sink into oblivion. The fate of the Welsh resembles, in some measure, that of the ancient nations, which became successively a prey to the irresistible inundation of the Greek and Roman power. They fought for their liberties with a perseverance, which affords unquestionable proof of their valour; but the history of their wars being chiefly transmitted by the conquerors, there is reason to think that the narrative is not only written with partiality, but must often be deficient with respect to true information.

Considering the extraordinary attachment of the Welsh to the renown of their ancestors, it may justly appear surprising, that no native of that country has ever yet attempted a regular history of the nation. But of a composition of this nature their language afforded no example; and while the valiant exploits of their progenitors were celebrated in the songs of

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their bards, they were little solicitous for that fame which could but faintly strike the imagination through the medium of inanimated records. They may now, however, congratulate their country, that a writer has arisen, with a genius very different from that of the monk of Llanccarvan, and traced the various fortunes of the ancient Britons, not only with a dignity suitable to historical composition, but with such a degree of liberal sympathy, as, had he not thought proper to inform us he is an Englishman, we might have entertained an opinion that he derived his descent from ancient Cambria.

The reverend author sets out with a review of the British history before the retreat of the Romans from this country; and, in the second book, continues the subject from this epoch to the period when the ancient Britons were driven into Wales, Cornwall, and Armorica. He justly observes, that the most obvious defect in the national character of the Britons was a negligence in establishing a naval power; though experience, and the nature of their situation, pointed out the propriety of this measure, as the only effectual means of contending with the Saxons, and of counteracting their designs.

The third Book contains an Account of the Wars between the Saxons and Welsh, to the Death of Roderic the Great. About the commencement of this epoch, towards the end of the sixth century, Cambria took the name of Wales, and the inhabitants ceased to be denominated Britons, by which title they had been hitherto distinguished. But their former severity of fortune, Mr. Warrington observes, continued to pursue this brave people in their last asylum, as the conquest of this barren domain became the object of ambition and policy to the Saxon and Norman princes. In this period of the British history, Cadwalader affords an example of that superstitious weakness, which has actuated a few other princes, even since the decline of the dark ages.

‘ After residing some time in the court of Bretagne, says the historian, Cadwalader prepared to return into Wales; having heard that the famine and pestilence had ceased, and that the Saxons, with increasing power, were endeavouring to extend their conquests. With this view he collected an army, composed of his own subjects and his allies the Bretons, with a suitable fleet to transport them across the channel. In such a situation, a magnanimous prince would either have rescued his country from its danger, or would have buried himself in its ruins. But just at the time that Cadwalader was going to embark, he was warned in a vision, which he fancied to be a sudden impulse from heaven, which directed him to lay aside the cares of the world, and go immediately to Rome, to receive holy orders from the hands of the pope. This illusion, the
effect

effect of a weak or distempered mind, he communicated to the king of Bretagne; who, probably from interested motives, took advantage of this incident to act on the weakness of this prince, and on the credulity of his nation; which, in common with every other people in the same stage of refinement, always paid a high veneration to men, who, acting under the impulse of a warm and enthusiastic spirit, fancied themselves indued with the power of revealing future events.

‘Having consulted the prophetic books of the two Merlins, which were deemed sacred as the pages of the Roman Sybils, Alan told him, they predicted the ruin of the British empire, until the time that the bones of king Cadwalader should be brought back from Rome. He then advised him to act up to the patriotic design, and to follow the impulse of his vision. Thus confirmed in the delusion, Cadwalader proceeded to Rome; and, agreeably to the interested views of the Roman pontiffs, was kindly received by pope Sergius. After he had submitted to have his head shaven, and to be initiated into the order of white monks, Cadwalader lived eight years as a religious recluse; exemplary in the piety of those days, but in a situation unworthy of a prince; as it secluded him from the practice of active virtue, and of consequence, from promoting the interests of his people; for which great end alone princes are delegated to rule mankind.’

In this part of the work, our author describes the modes of life, and private manners of the Welsh, whose character bears a great resemblance to that of the other Celtic nations. They are represented to be a people light and nimble, and more fierce than strong. Their chief sustenance was cattle and oats, besides milk, cheese, and butter; though they usually ate more plentifully of flesh-meat than of bread. Being little engaged in the occupations of traffic, their time was chiefly employed in military affairs. They entertained an idea that it was a disgrace to die in their beds, but an honour to fall in the field. There was not a beggar to be seen in the whole country, for the tables were common to all; and hospitality was esteemed one of the chief virtues. Pride of ancestry, and nobility of family, were extremely predominant. A Welshman was considered as honourable, if among his ancestors there had been neither slave, nor foreigner, nor infamous person. Yet if any foreigner had saved the life of a Welshman, or delivered him from captivity, he might be naturalized; and any foreign family, having resided in Wales for four generations, was entitled to the same privilege.

Our author observes, concerning Roderic, who has received from his countrymen the title of Great, that, if to produce the wealth and grandeur, the safety and happiness of a state, be the means of attaining such a title, the conduct of this prince

prince gave him little claim to so honourable a distinction. For Roderic, without precedent to palliate, or apparent necessity to enforce such a measure, yielded up the independency of Wales; enjoining his posterity, by a solemn rescript, to pay to the Saxon kings, as a mark of subordination, a yearly tribute, which afterwards became the foundation of the claim of supremacy, asserted by the English. Such a tribute had, indeed, been paid by the Cambrian to the British princes; but this, certainly, could impose no similar obligation upon the descendants of those Britons, who had been forced to abandon their native country to the usurped dominion of the Saxons. The division which Roderic made of his territories, proved likewise the source of civil dissensions, and national weakness, which produced in the end a decline of patriotism.

In the fourth book, our author recites the history of Wales, from the Death of Roderic to that of Bleddyn ap Cynvyn, the king of North Wales and Powis, in the latter part of the eleventh century. The bad effects of the policy of Roderic now became conspicuous: for in consequence of it, Bleddyn ap Cynvyn deigned to receive his crown from the hands of that power which was the hereditary foe of his country, and consented to hold it as a tributary of the English princes. In the next Book, we find William Rufus entering Wales with a royal army, and asserting a superiority to which he had no legal pretensions.

In the same Book we meet with the following transaction, which, in its origin, bears an affinity to an incident that produced a revolution in the Roman government.

‘ In the Christmas holidays, Cadwgan ap Bleddyn invited the chieftains in his neighbourhood to a feast at his house in Dyvet. In the course of the entertainment, medh, or mead, the wine of this country, having raised their spirits, Nest, the wife of Gerald, governor in Pembroke castle, was spoken of in terms of admiration; the beauty and elegance of whose person, it was said, exceeded those of any lady in Wales. The curiosity of Owen, the son of Cadwgan, was strongly excited to see her; and he had little doubt of obtaining admittance, as there was a degree of relationship subsisting between them. Under colour of a friendly visit, the young chieftain, with a few of his attendants, was introduced into the castle. Finding that fame had been cold in her praise, he returned home deeply enamoured of her beauty, and fired with an eager desire of enjoying her. The same night, returning with a troop of his wild companions, he secretly entered the castle, and, in the confusion, occasioned by setting it on fire, surrounded the chamber in which Gerald and his wife slept. Awaked by the noise, he rushed suddenly out of bed to inquire into the cause of the dis-

disturbance; but his wife, suspecting some treachery, prevented his opening the door; then, advising him to retire to the privy, she pulled up the board; and still farther assisting her husband, he let himself down, and made his escape. Owen and his followers instantly broke open the door; but on searching the chamber, not finding Gerald, they seized his wife and two of his sons, besides a son and daughter which he had by a concubine; then leaving the castle in flames, and ravaging the country, he carried off Nest and the children into Powis. This adventure gave Cadwgan the greatest uneasiness. Afraid, lest Henry might revenge on his head the atrocious action of his son, he came into Powis, and requested Owen that he would send back to Gerald his wife and children, as well as the plunder which he had taken. The young chieftain, whose love was heightened by the possession of his mistress, refused to restore her. Whether she yielded to the violence of her lover from choice or from necessity, is uncertain; but he soon after sent back to Gerald all his children, at her particular request.

The sixth Book contains the narrative from the Death of Gryffydd ap Cynan to the Accession of Llewelyn ap Iorwerth; and the seventh, from this period to the Death of David ap Llewelyn. Mr. Warrington observes, that the Welsh annals are discoloured for some years by hideous pictures of savage manners; parents, brothers, sons, engaging with each other in fierce and unnatural contests. But with the delicacy becoming a judicious historian, he has drawn a veil over those scenes of horror, which could only prove disgusting to humanity. His attention is bestowed on national objects; and, in the course of his narrative, we behold the Welsh exhibiting the most magnanimous efforts for the liberty of their country. Sometimes, by a sudden vicissitude of fortune, they rise to the height of prosperity; and at other times, in a moment, sink into disunion and vassalage.

The eighth Book contains the history from the Accession of Owen and Llewelyn, the Sons of Gryffydd ap Llewelyn, to the Death of Llewelyn, the last Prince of North Wales: and the ninth, from the Accession of David ap Gryffydd, to the entire Conquest of Wales. This important event was accomplished during the reign of Edward the First, after an obstinate struggle with several preceding kings of the Norman race. The people of both nations can now reflect with composure, on those violent animosities which actuated their ancestors through a series of ages; and even the descendants of the vanquished will readily acknowledge, that the eventual introduction of justice and order into their country, has more than compensated for the abolition of their ancient and long disputed independency. These salutary effects, however, must

be ascribed entirely to the ambition, not to the virtue or magnanimity of the English monarch. For his conquest of the Welsh was sullied with an act of barbarity, which could be suggested only by the policy of a tyrant, the most atrocious and illiberal: we mean the massacre of the Welsh bards. Of this class of ancient Britons our author has favoured us with a short history, which he relates with the same perspicuity and precision as the former parts of the work.

A transcript of various national documents, partly in English, partly in Latin, relative to Wales, are subjoined in an Appendix to the work.

In an age, when the industry of writers has pre-occupied every fertile field in the regions of history, Mr. Warrington has happily taken possession of a mountainous tract, never before cultivated with any suitable degree of application. The detail of provincial transactions is not a subject which necessarily calls forth the exertion of the most vigorous abilities; but we may perceive the display of genius on a small, as well as on an extensive theatre; and we cannot hesitate to conclude, that he who has treated of the affairs of Wales with such dignity of style, and propriety of sentiment, is qualified for the attainment of applause in more important departments of history.

The Heirefs. A Comedy, in Five Acts. As performed at the Theatre-Royal, Drury-Lane. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

IF the end of comedy be to represent, with fidelity, the manners of the world, and not only to catch the reigning folly of the day, but to delineate the minuter features which distinguish the period of the author, the *Heirefs* has considerable claims to our applause, and we can join in the general acclamations of the crowded theatre. The characters of this play are properly varied, and often contrasted with peculiar skill: the situations are perplexing, without too studied intricacy; and the language is lively, elegant, and polished. In short, if we try our author on one part only of the statute, he will be acquitted with honour, and his trial be terminated with applause. In other views, he will not be equally successful. Novelty of character, peculiar and striking situations, and a suspense, which stands on tip-toe, eager for the denouement, we in vain look for: but perhaps it may be fastidious to expect too much; and, if we are gratified both with the progress of the story and the event, we ought not to complain of the source from which our gratifications are derived.

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The story is a common one. Lord Gayville is designed by his uncle for a rich heiress, the daughter of an attorney, mean, vulgar, and unfeeling; but ostentatious and ambitious. He pursues miss Alscript only for her wealth; yet, accidentally meeting miss Alton, becomes sensible that wealth alone cannot fill the void in a feeling heart. Though this lady appears in a low situation, his dishonourable advances are checked with a decided firmness, and a virtuous resolution. His tutor, friend, and companion Clifford, loves lord Gayville's sister, lady Emily; but, conscious of his situation, 'adores her' as a star, 'which he can never hope to reach:' she, in return, sees his merits, and is sensible of their effect; she is, however, under the eye of a shrewd, suspicious uncle, and, fearing to discover her sentiments, veils them under the mask of a lively fashionable gaiety. Miss Alton, to avoid Gayville, seeks for the protection of some lady, with whom she may remain as a humble companion: she is, by chance, directed to miss Alscrip, who receives her with a haughty dignity; and she is treated by the rest of the family with the most familiar illiberality. Gayville, having lost his favourite, visits miss Alscrip, who, in a fit of ill-humour, sends her confidante to him to *double* her, 'like a second actress at Paris, when the first has the vapours.' She goes, and sees in lord Gayville her former persecutor, whom she had known only by the name of Heartly. He immediately addresses her with warmth and affection, is discovered by miss Alscrip, who chuses to see how her *double* performs, and leaves them, assuring the latter that he can no longer offer her his heart.

In the mean time, Clifford and sir Clement are endeavouring to prevent the progress of Gayville's new connection: they go to Alscrip's, and, by the address of the Frenchman, who has himself a *tendre* for 'mademoiselle la Musicienne,' are introduced to Tiffany, miss Alscrip's waiting-maid, instead of miss Alton. She is pert and saucy at the first enquiries of Clifford; but, being interrupted, desires him to put his proposals in writing. This confirms them in the opinion, that Gayville's object is an adventurer, and Clifford writes to her by the name of miss Alton. The Frenchman, by whom the letter is also sent, suspects, from the ambiguity of Clifford's language, that his trick is discovered, and faithfully delivers it as directed. Miss Alton is extremely agitated with her unexpected happiness, for she finds it comes from her brother. She had been left under the protection of an uncle, from whom she escaped, on his attempting to force her to marry a man she detests. She discovers herself to her brother; he conveys her from miss Alscrip's, and conceals her in his own

apartment at Gayville's. Sir Clement's suspicious temper leads him, in the course of the transactions relating to the marriage settlements, to insist on seeing a particular deed, for which Alscip, in a hurry, puts another into the hands of his attorney; and, by this rather too artificial contrivance, discovers that a considerable estate really belongs to Clifford: his grandfather, to whom Alscip was steward, and at last creditor, having had no right to dispose of it. The event is now obvious, though the piece is not immediately concluded; probably on account of the length which has been arbitrarily assigned to every regular play: the rest is filled with some explanation of the mistakes which have occurred. This part is dextrously managed; for, instead of the wounded snake dragging its slow length along, the concluding scenes are not inferior to the other parts.

This outline will seem to afford nothing very interesting; and, in meaner hands, would have scarcely deserved attention. General Burgoyne, however, has had the address to vary common characters, so as to give them an appearance of novelty: he has coloured his sketch with a masterly pencil; and drawn a discriminated likeness, which gives the most lively impression of real life. The suggestions of jealousy, expressed by Sir Clement, are pointed, and apparently well founded; Clifford, with the most disinterested integrity, is occasionally in such an equivocal situation, as to justify the doubts of a man who may have suffered by pretended honesty, or at least endeavours to vindicate his claim to sagacity, by a propensity to suspicion. Lady Emily is not the romantic heroine of a novel; though she loves with tenderness, she disguises a feeling heart by affected gaiety; and, instead of yielding without resistance, instead of pining in secret, she is brought more near to a real character, by being represented as a lady who joins in the circle of fashionable pleasure. Lord Gayville and Clifford, Miss Alscip and her father, are common figures; but the characters are well preserved, and they are brought forward with great propriety. Indeed we have seldom seen a play, where the appearance and part allotted to each person is so justly proportioned to their real importance. We too commonly perceive one figure magnified to a gigantic stature, and the others placed at a humble distance, curtailed in their size, effect, and importance. There are two other characters which fill up the piece, though, as they are of no great consequence to the general story, they did not occur in the outline. These are Blandish and his sister, two infamous parasites, attached to Lord Gayville and Miss Alscip. We can only observe, that they seem copied from real life; and we suspect,

suspect, are too often met with there : we do not mean that they are designed for particular persons ; but, to speak in the language of natural history, they are species rather than individuals.

We have before remarked, that the great hinge on which the change of fortune turns, is too artificial. It is improbable, and is not the only circumstance which deserves that title. But we shall not dwell on imperfections, particularly on those which almost disappear in the representation ; the truest criterion of the excellence of a comedy, and which are not very obvious or striking blemishes, even in the closet. Indeed we may conclude, that if this comedy is not the first in our language, or even in the first line, it possesses considerable merit ; and we have little doubt but that it will continue a favourite with the public, as it has already enjoyed such distinguished tokens of approbation.

It is not easy to select a specimen. Perhaps the following can be more easily separated from the rest. Lady Emily, it is to be remembered, in a dejected state endeavours to lose her own thoughts, in a trial of fashionable extravagance with miss Alscip.

Enter Miss Alscip and Mrs. Blandish.

Miss Alscip runs up to Lady Emily and kisses her forehead.

Lady Emily. I ask your pardon, madam, for being so awkward, but I confess I did not expect so elevated a salute.

Miss Alscip. Dear lady Emily, I had no notion of its not being universal. In France, the touch of the lips just between the eyebrows has been adopted for years.

Lady Emily. I perfectly acknowledge the propriety of the custom. It is almost the only spot of the face where the touch wou'd not risk a confusion of complexions.

Miss Alscip. He ! he ! he ! what a pretty thought !

Mrs. Blandish. How I have long'd for this day !—Come, let me put an end to ceremony, and join the hands of the sweetest pair that ever nature and fortune marked for connection. (*Joins their hands.*)

Miss Alscip. Thank you, my good Blandish, tho' I was determined to break the ice, lady Emily, in the first place I met you. But you were not at lady Doricourt's last night.

Lady Emily (affectedly). No, I went home directly from the opera : projected the revival of a cap ; read a page in the Trials of Temper ; went to bed, and dream'd I was Belinda, in the Rape of the Lock.

Mrs. Blandish. Elegant creature.

Miss Alscip (aside). I must have that air, if I die for it. (*imitating*) I too came home early ; supped with my old gentleman ; made him explain my marriage articles, dower, and heirs entail ; read a page in a trial of divorce, and dream'd of a rose-colour

colour equipage, with emblems of Cupids issuing out of coronets.

• *Mrs. Blandish.* Oh, you sweet twins of perfection! what equality in every thing! I have thought of a name for you—The inseparable inimitables.

• *Miss Alscrip.* I declare I shall like it exceedingly—one sees so few uncopied originals—the thing I cannot bear—

• *Lady Emily.* Is vulgar imitation—I must catch the words from your mouth, to shew you how we agree.

• *Miss Alscrip.* Exactly. Not that one wishes to be without affectation.

• *Lady Emily.* Oh! mercy forbid!

• *Miss Alscrip.* But to catch a manner, and weave it, as I may say, into one's own originality.

• *Mrs. Blandish.* Pretty! pretty!

• *Lady Emily.* That's the art—Lord, if one liv'd entirely upon one's own whims, who would not be run out in a twelve-month?

• *Miss Alscrip.* Dear lady Emily, don't you doat upon folly?

• *Lady Emily.* To extacy. I only despair of seeing it well kept up.

• *Miss Alscrip.* I flatter myself there is no great danger of that.

• *Lady Emily.* You are mistaken. We have it's true, some examples of the extravaganza in high life that no other country can match; but withal, many a false sister, that starts as one wou'd think, in the very hey-day of the fantastic, yet comes to a stand-still in the midst of the course.

• *Mrs. Blandish.* Poor spiritless creatures!

• *Lady Emily.* Do you know there is more than one duchess who has been seen in the same carriage with her husband—like two doves in a basket in the print of Conjugal Felicity; and another has been detected! I almost blush to name it.

• *Mrs. Blandish.* Bless us, where? and how? and how?

• *Lady Emily.* In nursing her own child.

• *Miss Alscrip.* Oh! barbarism!—For heaven's sake let us change the subject. You were mentioning a reviv'd cap, lady Emily; any thing of the Henry quatre?

• *Lady Emily.* Quite different. An English mob under the chin, and artless ringlets in natural colour, that shall restore an admiration for Prior's Nut brown Maid.

• *Miss Alscrip.* Horrid! shocking!

• *Lady Emily.* Absolutely necessary. To be different from the rest of the world, we must now revert to nature; make haste, or you have so much to undo, you will be left behind.

• *Miss Alscrip.* I dare say so. But who can vulgarize all at once? what will the French say?

• *Lady Emily.* We are to have an interchange of fashions and follies upon a basis of unequivocal reciprocity.

• *Miss*

' *Miss Alscrip*. Fashions and follies—oh, what a promising manufacture!

' *Lady Emily*. Yes, and one, thank heaven, that we may defy the edict of any potentate to prohibit.

' *Miss Alscrip* (*with an affected drop of her lip in her laugh*). He! he! he! he! he! he!

' *Lady Emily*. My dear miss Alscrip, what are you doing? I must correct you as I love you. Sure you must have observed the drop of the under lip is exploded since lady Simpermode broke a tooth—(*Sets her mouth affectedly*)—I am preparing the cast of the lips for the ensuing winter—thus—It is to be called the Paphian mimp.

' *Miss Alscrip* (*imitating*). I swear I think it pretty—I must try to get it.

' *Lady Emily*. Nothing so easy. It is done by one calabistical word, like a metamorphosis in the Fairy Tales. You have only, when before your glass, to keep pronouncing to yourself nimini-primini—the lips cannot fail of taking their plie.

' *Miss Alscrip*. Nimini-pimini—imini, mimini—oh, it's delightfully infantine—and so innocent, to be kissing one's own lips.

' *Lady Emily*. You have it to a charm—does it not become her infinitely, Mrs. Blandish?

' *Mrs. Blandish*. Our friend's feature must succeed in every grace; but never so much as in a quick change of extremes.'

FOREIGN ARTICLE.

Histoire de l'Academie Royale des Sciences Année 1781, avec les Memoires de Mathematique & de Physique pour la même Année, Paris, 4to. 1784. (Concluded, from p. 64.)

WE must go on with M. Lavoisier.—This dextrous and enterprising chemist, in the next Memoir, examines the constitution of fixed air: it is intended to give a stability and a roundness to his general system. But he approaches nearer to the old principle of Stahl; and, as the historian hints, the two contending sects may one day unite: they seem already, by their mutual gravitations, to tend fast towards an union. The principle which, in vital air, forms with sulphur and phosphorus their peculiar acids, he styles the oxygenous principle, because he finds it again in the nitrous acid, formed by the mixture of nitrous and vital airs; and he hopes to find it in fixed air. Coal, he observes, contains earth, fixed alkali, and inflammable air, with a substance wholly combustible, which (mark him reader), he calls a *coaly substance*. He burns coal in a vessel, full of vital air, with some alkali (the caustic volatile alkali) to absorb the air, and expects to find the fixed air equal to

to the coaly substance lost, and the vital air absorbed. There was, however, a difference; for some of the inflammable air of the coal had formed water by its union with the vital air. When this was allowed for, he found the fixed air composed of seventy-one parts of vital air, or its oxygenous principle, and twenty-nine of coaly matter. The water was properly accounted for, since when the coal had been previously deprived of its inflammable air, no water appeared, and the result was the same. He then used wax, which he found wholly composed of a *coaly substance* and inflammable air; water was formed, and fixed air appeared to consist of the same proportions. Other experiments, with minium and mercurius precipitatus per se, after proper allowances, give the same result; and thus the author establishes the formation of the peculiar acid from vital air, and a combustible body; or rather of the oxygenous principle of this air, for light and heat escape in the experiment. We think, however, that he has, with unusual precipitation, hastened to his conclusion; for this combustible body should have been more particularly examined. He has only proved, that vital air is necessary to the production of fixed air; which might have been supposed from its being an acid: in the rest of the argument there is still much obscurity.

Mons. Bertholet, in the following Memoir, examines the decomposition of nitre by distillation. In this process, vital air arises equal in weight to half the salt; a little fixed air at first, and phlogisticated air at last, seem to contaminate it. This phlogisticated air is often called by the modern French chemists *air reduit*, because it remains after the separation of the different parts of atmospheric air, viz. the vital and fixed airs. We shall beg leave to introduce a new term, and call it the *residuum of air*. A fixed alkali, as may be expected, remains in the retort. Some nitre sublimes in the experiment; but, if there is not a free communication between this sublimed salt and the vital air, it resembles the neutral, formed by nitrous air and the alkali. When the nitre was decomposed, by adding three grains of coal to each drachm of the salt, (the coal being previously deprived of its air by distillation, it gave no longer pure air, but an air mixed with fixed, and the residuum of air; when the proportion of coal is increased, these impurities are in greater quantity. With sulphur and arsenic he obtained nitrous air; with metals, fixed air, in proportion to the quantity added. This last fact seems to deserve more attention than has been paid to it. From these experiments our author concludes, that nitrous air is the acid, with a superabundance of phlogiston; and the residuum of air and fixed air are supposed to be only vital air, with different proportions of the same principle.

In a mixture of mineral acids, whether designed or accidental, messrs. de Laffoune and Cornette found that the heat may be obtained very pure by distillation, if the operation is

is carefully carried on, and the products diligently separated. If the acid is weak, the watery parts first come over; but if already pretty strong, the most concentrated parts appear about the middle of the operation. These facts are highly useful.

Our neighbours, who carry their science into many seemingly trifling subjects, under the term analysis, have included memoirs of an uncommon kind. The chevalier Borde observes, that in elections, by scrutiny, if there are three candidates, it may happen that the successful one has not the majority. If there are twenty-one voters; A has eight, B seven, and C six; A gains the election, though eight is a number very distant from a real majority. The rule he gives to obtain the real majority is the following. The number of voices for the successful candidate must be in a greater proportion to the number of electors, than that of the number of candidates, *minus* one to the whole number. It is remarkable that this is the rule observed in the election of the kings of Poland, where the number of candidates equals, and sometimes surpasses, the number of electors.

The next Memoir is apparently trifling, yet it is only determined by the properties of the hyperbola, and some very curious applications of the differential calculus, or the method of fluxions. In carrying earth from one place, to lay it in an equal space, it is evident that both trouble and expence may be saved. The force to be employed is equal to that of the masses, multiplied by the space through which each load is carried; but this sum must vary, according to the distribution of the loads. The object of mons. Monge is to ascertain the method in which the sum mentioned is the least possible. Our readers will scarcely wish that we should follow the author in this calculation.

The next Memoir under this head, by the marquis de Condorcet, is more important. It is on the Calculation of Chances. It is well known, that in estimating risks which are unequal, or unequally probable, the value must be multiplied by the probability. This rule gives only the mean value; but there are two exceptions which the marquis considers, first, where the equality between the real and mean values, which the rule, taken strictly, supposes to be the same, is delusive; secondly, where there is no possibility of substituting the real for the mean value. These exceptions do not often occur; but they deserve to be examined. The second part of the Memoir is still farther from 'mens business and bosoms.'

Under the head of Mechanics, we find some remarks on the ascensional power of air-balloons. They were the last legacy of the celebrated and venerable Euler, whose black board (mathematicians will understand us), was covered with calculations, which his eyes could scarcely discern, though written with chalk. The force of his mind still remained, while the springs of life were ready to break. Euler, however, considered balloons as sub-

subjects of calculation only; and his labours were soon interrupted by an irresistible power.

The next Memoir, in this department, is by monf. Coulomb, on Wind-mills. It is well known, that the most advantageous angle for the sails, is a problem which has exercised the ingenuity of mathematicians; yet, by 'dint of feeling their way,' practical mechanics have arrived nearly at the same results. The mills near Lille are simple in their construction; like the English fulling-mills, which differ only by being moved with water, and their force is easily calculated. They work eight hours in a day, by the action of a wind, which passes on at the rate of twenty feet in a second, and with a force capable of raising one thousand pounds, at the rate of two hundred and eighteen feet in a second. Sixty-one men, according to Bernouilli's calculation (in which our author thinks the strength of a man, in *continued labour*, is over-rated), would be required for the same purpose. The quantity of force lost is about a sixth of that which is employed with advantage. M. Coulomb was prevented by the jealousy of the several owners, from examining the mills with accuracy; and he requests the assistance of others, who may be more fortunately situated. He desires that the effects of the machine, and a calculation of the forces, may be added to the description. He purposes to apply these experiments to the investigation of a theory of these machines, which has been sought, in vain, *a priori*.

The last mechanical Memoir is a Description of a new Species of Telescope Level, by M. de Fouchy. The telescope is formed of two object and an eye-glass; with four glasses our author could not succeed. The description would be unintelligible without the plate.

In analytical astronomy, M. du Sejoir endeavours to determine the parallax of the sun, from the transits of Venus in 1761, and 1769. He makes it $8'' \frac{1}{2}$. If we recollect rightly, the English astronomers found it somewhat less, though it exceeded eight seconds. The difference in the results, from the two observations, did not amount to the fiftieth part of a second.

In calculating the quantity of the precession of the equinoxes, monf. de la Lande prefers a series of modern observations to the less accurate, though more distant ancient ones. He compares Flamsteed and de la Caille's Catalogue of Stars, and neglects those of the first magnitude, as they seem to have some motions peculiarly their own. He calculates from those which have been most steadily and accurately observed among the smaller stars; and the results, in different trials, were nearly the same: by taking the mean of these, he fixes the quantity of precision at $50'' \frac{1}{4}$ every year.

Eclipses, which by calculation are total, sometimes appear annular, in consequence of the inflection of the solar rays, when they pass near the body of the moon. The quantity of
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this inflection, *monf. le Monnier* calculates, from some observations, to exceed twenty-four seconds. Other astronomers have reckoned it, by different methods, to be about three seconds. This variation is supposed to be owing to the refraction of the rays from a lunar atmosphere.

M. Coles observed an eclipse of the fourth satellite of Jupiter, at China, in very favourable circumstances. From thence he calculates the inclination of its orbit to be $2^{\circ} 35' 24''$. He differs but $24''$ from the calculations of *messrs. Wargentun and Maraldi*.

M. de Fouchy, in the following Memoir, describes a new quadrant, which is neither dearer or of more difficult conveyance than the common quadrant; at the same time it serves as an azimuthal instrument. If this new instrument, of which there is a plate, can be easily made and used, as seems probable from the description, it will be highly advantageous.

There are also in the Memoirs, Observations on the Eclipses of the sun, on the 23d of April, and 17th of October, 1781, by *M. Monnier*; on the last of these are other observations by *messrs. Jaurat and Pingré*. The paths of the two comets of 1781, are also described, and traced on an Atlas, by *M. Messier*. But these Memoirs cannot be with advantage enlarged on.

The last Memoir is on the Position of Trebizonde. *D'Anville*, and every other geographer, had been consistent in fixing the longitude of this place; but in the Atlas, engraved for *Raynal's Philosophical History*, it is placed $5\frac{1}{2}$ or 6 degrees farther to the east. This was done on the authority of a Memoir, published in the Memoirs of the Academy 1699, by *M. Gouye*, from the Observations of father *Beze*. *M. Buache* examines the effect of this variety on the Caspian sea. The northern part must be stationary, for the latitude of *Guriew*, at the mouth of the *Jaik*, is fixed by astronomical observations, and this change will place it in an oblique position, and make its length five times greater than its breadth. These two circumstances are inconsistent with the account of every intelligent traveller, and the change in the situation of other places renders the alteration, on similar accounts, equally objectionable. Besides, in the Memoir referred to, the result of the calculations are only given; so that we cannot decide on their value, or be secure from mistake. On the other hand, in page 6 of the Atlas, we find several strong reasons for the position they have determined on, though not sufficient to counterbalance the arguments of *M. Buache*; and, in the following page, we find the authors with difficulty reconciling the positions of Constantinople and Smyrna, to the new place of Trebizonde, consistently with the observations of *de Chazelles*, and father *Feuillée*. On the whole, we think the Memoir before us deserves attention; and we have been more particular in our account of it, as we begin to find the authority of *Raynal's maps* quoted in England with a respect which they do not always deserve. In
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general; they are sufficiently accurate; but, in more than one instance, they deserve reprehension.

The lives, or more properly the eulogiums in this volume, are those of the learned, but the timid and indecisive Bertin, who was chiefly known and celebrated as an anatomist; le marquis de Courtanvaux, a learned academician, who had no particular predilection for any science, but a competent knowledge of all; mons. le compte de Maurepas, a minister at the ages of fourteen and of eighty; and the sagacious Tronchin, the friend and physician of Voltaire, Bonnet, Trembley, and Rousseau. These Lives are written with spirit and with elegance; but with too much complaisance, and too little discrimination.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

P O L I T I C A L.

The Principle of the Commutation-Act established by Facts. By Francis Baring, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Sewell.

AMONG the many frivolous publications on political subjects, we sometimes find them treated of by men of real knowledge. The information, of which the public is then in possession, more than compensates for the wrong judgments that must necessarily result either from unfairness or ignorance. The general effect of the measure which is the subject of this pamphlet; is sufficiently felt and understood; yet it will be allowed, that Mr. Baring, from professional habits of calculation, and his station in the India company, is particularly qualified to write on the commutation-tax, with which he seems to have been acquainted, when it only existed in design. In consequence of his having been early prepossessed in favour of it, and from its success, he rejoices as an author, and a good citizen.

‘The author of these sheets, he says, writes neither from party views, nor upon party principles. The only connexion he ever had with the treasury arose from his being employed in a very considerable simplification of the public expenditure, in the business of supplying the whole of the army victualling contracts, during the time that the marquis of Lansdown presided at that board. The execution of that great and important work, together with his situation in the city, naturally led to his being confidentially consulted respecting other affairs, of a commercial nature, which were either depending, or in contemplation. The tea-proposition (which was presented to his lordship by Mr. Richardson, of the East-India house),

house), and many other plans were then in agitation; and more or less progress was made in them, as time and other circumstances would permit. The proposition respecting the duties upon tea was also communicated to several principal persons belonging to the excise and customs, and to others who were competent to judge of its merits; and was generally approved; Under these circumstances, the author's most sanguine wishes were early embarked in the success of this measure; and it affords him the greatest satisfaction to declare, that he feels himself infinitely gratified by the event.'

He gives an account of the quantity of tea usually sold by the company, before the act passed, which, on an average, amounted to six millions three hundred and fifty-eight thousand one hundred and forty-four pounds annually. The sale of last year was sixteen millions one hundred and fifty-two thousand six hundred and seventy: we cannot abridge calculations; suffice it to say, the public has gained, by lowering the duties, two millions fifty-five thousand four hundred and sixty-two pounds. Those who want to see the particulars, will be fully gratified by consulting the pamphlet. The author next enters on the produce of the house-tax, &c. but for this we must also refer to the pamphlet. He says that

'The situation of the India company is so completely reversed by the commutation act, and so entirely are they relieved from the difficulty which would have arisen from the circumstance before mentioned, that, in order to guard against even the possibility of a deficiency in the quantity necessary to answer the increased demand of the public, the company have been obliged to have recourse to the continent; and have actually purchased, of the tea which was in Europe previous to the year 1784, and of what arrived in that season, about £6,600 000; and the vigorous efforts which they are making in the present season, for the purpose of importing a sufficient quantity directly from China, in order to preclude the necessity in future of depending on their rivals for a supply, will afford the means, in due time, of securing, both to the nation and to the company, the whole of those important advantages, which have already in part arisen from this measure, and which the public have a right to expect.'

After some other necessary detail of calculation, he observes, that the company have gained three hundred and eleven thousand nine hundred and five pounds; a considerable part of which, it seems, arises from the high prices at which some sorts of teas have been sold, and which the directors have exerted their utmost endeavours to prevent. As it is so much for the interest of the smuggler that the company's tea should be sold dear, we may fairly presume, that it was pushed

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up at the sales by unfair practices. The public loses immensely by illicit trade in this article, no less a sum than one million seven hundred and thirty-four thousand nine hundred pounds having been paid to smugglers, which is now turned into the channel of the fair trader.

To those who are skilled in political arithmetic, the advantages which must result from so large a balance being thrown into the lap of this country, by so simple an operation, are obvious. The wonderful effect which it has contributed to produce upon the foreign exchanges, by reducing the price of gold and silver, is matter of the utmost importance and advantage to the Bank of England, as well as to the public. And although the demand for our manufactures, &c. together with the general prosperity of the British empire, have also contributed thereto; yet that demand must fluctuate; whilst the balance which this kingdom will possess, arising from the beneficial consequences resulting from the commutation-act, will be permanent and lasting; if the legislature shall, on their part, adopt such measures as are calculated to secure and perpetuate the benefits so obtained; and which it is most indubitably in their power to do.

The late rapid advance in the value of property is a subject of astonishment with many persons; and, without ascertaining precisely the whole of the cause, there cannot be a doubt, but that two circumstances have, in a most essential manner, contributed thereto; namely, the great influx of wealth, which has increased the number of purchasers; and the confidence, which augments daily, in the public funds, from the prospect of the taxes becoming more productive, in consequence of the suppression of smuggling.

At the same time, the great and unexpected success which has attended a single measure, will naturally lead the true friends of the first commercial country in the world to wish to pursue the advantage so happily obtained; and to adopt, as a general maxim, for the whole of our commercial system, the same principle, which has been attended, in its first application, with such great and salutary benefits to the trade, finances, public funds, and landed interest of the kingdom at large.

The author goes on to mention other advantages, particularly in the application of the surplus of the Bengal revenue, for the purchase of tea in China; and, by that means, to lessen the exportation of bullion from home. He says, that the increase of the tea-trade will require forty-five additional ships, and employment for three thousand four hundred and fifty men; which, abstracted from every other consideration, must make it an object of vast national concern.—He concludes by justly observing,

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'These advantages, which have arisen from a single operation, are of such magnitude and importance, as to satisfy every impartial person of the beneficial consequences which must result from a general application of the same liberal principle to the duties still subsisting upon various branches of the manufactures and commerce of Great Britain.'

From this specimen, the reader will no doubt think the whole pamphlet worthy of his perusal and attention.

A Short Address to the Public; containing some Thoughts how the National Debt may be reduced, and all Home Taxes, including Land-Tax, abolished. By William, Lord Newhaven. 8vo. 1s. Debreit.

The reduction of the national debt is a problem which has exercised the ingenuity of many political writers; and, what is remarkable, on a subject so much agitated, not two of them correspond entirely in the methods proposed for the purpose. Amidst the discouragement arising from this diversity of opinion, however, it is some consolation to find, that each of those public-spirited enquirers seems not to entertain any doubt with respect to the practicability of the plan suggested by himself. It always affords us particular pleasure, when, in our monthly progress, we meet with a nobleman employed in so laudable a speculation. By this conduct, such an author not only evinces a patriotic anxiety, highly becoming his elevated rank, but sets an example to those who have leisure and opportunity for prosecuting researches of the same kind.

The commissioners of the public accounts, in their Eleventh Report, having occasion to speak of the national debt, expressed a desire that recourse might be had to public benevolence, for discharging this enormous incumbrance. Proceeding upon a plan of a similar kind, lord Newhaven proposes, that all the subjects of Great Britain should pay a certain annual rate out of their real and personal property; and that this sum should be faithfully applied to the liquidation of the public debt. According to the calculation which he institutes, the amount of the sum proposed to be thus levied would be so great as to discharge the whole debt in a very few years. As a compensation for this extraordinary advance of money, he farther proposes, that all internal taxes whatever should be abolished, after the first payment of one per cent. was made at his majesty's exchequer. His lordship observes that, according to this scheme, no individual will pay near so much on his rental or expenditure as he now does for taxes of every kind, and be relieved from the perpetual irritation and inquietude of tax-gatherers of every denomination.

To the plan above mentioned there naturally arises this question, if the home taxes are abolished, how are the army, navy, and the various departments of the civil government to be provided for? To this his lordship replies, that as he concludes

foreign nations will not take off the duty on our commodities imported into their respective countries, he proposes to continue the duty on goods imported, which he thinks will be nearly adequate to defray all expences, civil and military, in time of peace.

Such is the plan suggested by lord Newhaven for reducing the national debt; a plan, we must confess, not less bold and interesting in the conception, than apparently difficult of being enforced to the extent proposed by the noble author. In order to be adopted, there seems reason to think it would require an universal apprehension of danger the most imminent to the state, and such as threatened the extinction of government. At least, it appears to be so arduous in the execution, that it could only be accomplished by unparalleled alacrity, and a general spirit of patriotism, that has sometimes, indeed, blazed forth, in war, among a people in the most desperate circumstances, but which there is little hope of ever being kindled by the prospect of any civil emergency, not immediately destructive of public freedom. The proposal, however, affords a proof of his lordship's zeal for the public interests; and we sincerely wish that his meritorious example might excite that ardour which it ought to inspire in all the true lovers of their country.

An Address to the Landed, Trading and Funded Interests of England on the Present State of Public Affairs. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

This author takes an extensive view of the present state of the nation; but rather by a random excursion than with any precise and accurate enquiry. In every department which he considers, he meets with objects which excite his apprehension. Our specie is drained out of the kingdom, in annual payments to foreigners, who have property in the public funds; the landed interest is groaning under insupportable burdens; and the national debt is accumulated to so extreme a degree that it threatens to become fatal. For remedying these disasters the author proposes an equal representation of the commons in parliament, and a total abolition of duties at the custom-house. The effect of the former of these measures, towards removing the evil complained of, our author has not thought proper to explain; and how the extinction of the custom-house duties, while so great a part of the public revenue is necessary for paying the interest of the national debt, should restore our prosperity, is a proposition which, we must own, appears not very compatible with sound argument. We are inclined, however, to impute the motives of this address entirely to the author's impartial sentiments; for, though not a profound politician, he appears to be a candid writer, and to wish well to the interests of the nation.

'Tis all my Eye. 8vo. 1s. Wilkie.

This pamphlet is addressed to Archibald Macdonald, esq. on account of its relating to the police of Westminster, concerning which, a motion was made by that gentleman during the last session of parliament. The author makes some just observations on particular topics; but he seems to be no friend to the establishment of a new jurisdiction; contending, that a proper enforcement of the existing laws are sufficient for the preservation of order. Should we admit this to be really the case, it must follow, that the remissness of the magistrates in the discharge of their duty deserves the severest reprehension.

Collection of Acts passed in the State of Massachusetts Bay, relative to the American Loyalists and their Property. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

The wisdom and policy of these laws can be no object of attention to our readers; and it is, therefore, sufficient for us to observe, that the work appears to be authentic.

M E D I C A L.

Medical Cautions, for the Consideration of Invalids; those especially who resort to Bath. By James Makittrick Adair, M.D. 8vo. 3s. 6d. in Boards. Dilly.

It is rare to see a volunteer start up from among the discharged invalids; but our author tells us that he is independent of business, and a 'volunteer' in some of its branches. We think, however, that he has been well employed in publishing this work, which contains good sense, just reasoning, some humour, with little novelty, and a few occasional errors.

His observations on Fashionable Diseases, are acute and humorous; on the Effects of hot crowded Rooms, and noxious Air, solid and judicious. The Essay on Regimen, and the Enquiry into the Propriety of using other Remedies during a Course of Mineral Waters, contain many useful observations, which, with a few exceptions, we would strongly recommend. The Essay on Empiricism also deserves great attention; but empiricism is now the fashion, and, like Antæus, will only raise, with fresh strength, from every attempt to overthrow it. We cannot refrain from extracting the following spirited, and, we fear, well founded censure.

'When physicians (I do not mean quack doctors) adopt extraordinary modes of obtruding themselves and their wonderful abilities on the notice of the public, it would be no breach of charity to place them on the same form with nostrum-mongers; and the similarity is more obvious, as, in both instances, the merits of the regular doctor and his brother quack are always much exaggerated; whilst that public, to which the

appeal is made, is equally unqualified to judge of either. It is with regret, mingled with indignation, that I thus animadvert on the conduct of such of my brethren as have justly incurred this censure. In the preceding essay I took notice of their illiberal treatment of the Bath physicians; and it may fairly be presumed, that they are of the number of those, who, conscious of deficiency in personal merit, endeavour to compensate for that deficiency by cultivating, most assiduously, the good graces of apothecaries, midwives, nurses, abigails, toad-eaters, and puffing gossips. But, not contented with this indirect attack on their brethren, they generally proceed to direct hostilities, and by the dark and malignant insinuations of themselves or their emissaries, endeavour to blast the reputations of all their competitors. This serious charge may, by some of my readers, be deemed incredible; but it is not less true. Such ungentlemanly arts may reasonably be considered as truly empirical, and those who practise them as swindlers of reputation, and therefore greater pests of society than swindlers of property; inasmuch as they, in a great degree, deprive the public of the services and talents of modest men, who are generally as much their superiors in ability as in urbanity. That I may, in some degree, qualify the severity of this stricture, I take, with pleasure, this opportunity of declaring, that as I consider my profession as a most useful and respectable science, so I have a most sincere and affectionate attachment to all such of my brethren as discharge their duty with honour and integrity.

When we recommended the treatise on Regimen, with some exceptions, we meant not to avoid particulars. Butter, even in a melted state, is allowed by our author; and roasted meats are preferred to boiled. We suspect that he is mistaken both in his reasoning and facts. There is some empyreuma always contracted by melting butter; and the fat of roasted meat is often strongly empyreumatic. In these respects, both must be injurious to invalids; but we would refer to experiment. Hectical patients are more easily and quickly affected by the least disorder in the stomach, the least impediment in digestion, than any others. With these we have always found melted butter and roasted meat produce a considerable febrile exacerbation; and of course they have been generally forbidden. A meal of flesh meat has frequently occasioned less disturbance than melted butter with their vegetable food. Even butter, in its solid state, is not easily assimilated.

In the table of foods, which are arranged according to their digestibility, we also find some errors. Oysters, when fresh and small, are more easily digested than any other shell-fish, or than any other animal food. We speak from frequent observation, and suspect that our author has been misled by Sanctoarius and Keil. Crabs are more digestible than lobsters; and
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founders than whittings. We would refer our author to the experiments annexed to the first volume of the translation of Spallanzani's Dissertations, for some farther corrections in his table. On the whole, we think this work may be highly beneficial; and it deserves our recommendation.

D I V I N I T Y.

The Character of Jesus Christ: a Sermon, by George Skene Keith, M. A. 2vo. 1s. Evans.

In the first part of this discourse (for it is divided into two), we think some points of our Saviour's character injudiciously represented, and that there was no reason for exalting his miracles at so much expence of those of Moses and the Jewish prophets; for which conduct, we doubt whether the apology the author makes be sufficient.—We are not always contented with Mr. Keith's style. Instances occur where it is too turgid; others, where it is too familiar. We are suspicious that the following passage aims at the sublime. Having told us, from St. John, that *Jesus first groaned and wept, and then cried out with a loud voice, Lazarus, come forth*, our author adds 'That all Nature heard through all her works—Heaven heard and was astonished—Earth heard and rejoiced—Hell heard and trembled—Death heard and fled—the grave heard and opened—Lazarus heard and obeyed.' If our conjecture be well founded, we think Mr. Keith's sentiments on the sublime differ from those of Longinus.

We would be understood to have spoken only of the first part of this performance: we think the second far less exceptionable, and, on the whole, well written; and hope the author's volume of sermons, of which this is a specimen, will prove more nearly to resemble the latter than the former part.

An Enquiry into the Design of the Christian Sabbath. By J. Symons, B. D. The Second Edition. Small 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly.

This valuable little tract being much enlarged, entitles it again to be mentioned. It was first noticed in our Review of November, 1779. All we said then to its advantage is still due to its merit; and with pleasure we now observe, that it is not more enlarged than improved. A proportionable addition to its price being now charged, former purchasers cannot complain.

This performance is instructive, serious, and persuasive; but free from any tincture of gloom or superstition. It is written with such ease, simplicity, and correctness, that the most fastidious reader can scarcely fail to be pleased with its style, at the same time that the plainest must always comprehend it.

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We are persuaded that if the topics of the several sections had been expressed in Italics on the margin of each, their contents would have been better calculated for recollection. But this defect may be well remedied, by that repeated perusal which the book deserves, and we gladly recommend.

We wish to advertise the zealous advocates and promoters of the Sunday schools, that their establishments may in due time derive material advantage from this publication.

The Footstep to Mrs. Trimmer's Sacred History, for the Instruction and Amusement of Little Children. 12mo, 1s. 8d. Marshall.

One of the most important, though not the most brilliant, among the literary improvements of the present age, is the successful execution of several elementary performances for the use of children, from their earliest introduction to letters, till they become capable of higher instruction. This province, humble as it may seem, requires more than ordinary talents; and the author of this little work has not undertaken it without the necessary qualifications.

The principal histories of the Old Testament are presented with perspicuity and neatness, in short stories, adapted to the comprehensions and memories of almost the youngest readers; and through the whole are scattered, with the utmost plainness and brevity, such moral and religious sentiments, as are proper to make impression on the tenderest minds.

The Advertisement prefixed to the work will give those who are concerned in the early instruction of the rising generation, an adequate idea of the author's design in its publication; and as we think this performance well calculated to answer the purpose intended, we present this short preface to the public.

The following pages are, with great diffidence, offered to the world by a lady, who, sensible of their imperfections, solicits the indulgent perusal of parents and teachers.—Nothing could have induced her to appear in public, but the wish to be useful to those dear children whom it has been her province to instruct.

Being convinced, that the Scriptures ought ever to be the rule of our faith, and guide of our actions, the author wished her pupils to become acquainted with sacred history, and not finding any book of the kind that suited her purpose, she selected the following stories; which it is hoped will both amuse and instruct.—She has made it her study to bring the language down to the confined understanding of a child; and to contract the stories within the bounds of an easy lesson.

The writer of these pages thinks some apology due to Mrs. Trimmer, for making use of her name in the title to this publication. The high opinion she entertains of Mrs. Trimmer's Sacred History, made her wish to put it into the hands of her pupils;

pupils; but finding it above the understanding of very young children, she has, in this, attempted to form a Foot-step, to lead them to Mrs. Trimmer's more improved work.'

Strictures on Ecclesiastical Abuses. Addressed to the Bishops, Clergy, and People of Great Britain. 8vo. 1s. Dilly.

This inflammatory declaimer has advanced upon his eight topics—Ordination—Non-Residence—Presenting to Livings—Bonds of Resignation—Pluralities—Parsonage-Houses—Ecclesiastical Sinicures—and Indolence of the Clergy—all that common-place invective, and nothing more, which is usually inspired by an aversion to the payment of tythes, and that zealous spirit of reformation, which the recovery of ecclesiastical dues, on the part of some fortunate incumbents, has not unfrequently produced. We will charitably hope this writer has been influenced by better motives.

That evils exist in the church, as they do, and must do, in all extensive establishments, cannot be denied; but the present observer has undoubtedly viewed them through a multiplying medium, which, we are somewhat inclined to believe, has been held up to his mind's eye, by prejudice or passion.

A certain want of precision and elegance in these *Strictures*, furnish reason to imagine the subject of them has been taken up by a person whose education has not qualified him for very exact investigation; which, on topics of this nature, cannot be too nice, nor successfully conducted, without coolness and candour.

Essay on the Rewards of Eternity. 4to. 1s. Johnson.

This discourse obtained the annual prize, instituted by Mr. Norris, in the university of Cambridge. As we meet in it with nothing uncommon, we cannot but suppose that the productions of the other candidates must have been very deficient in merit.

Sermons adapted to the Family and Closet. By the late Rev. J. Webb. 4s. in Boards. Buckland.

We are informed, in a Preface to these Sermons, that the peculiar modesty of Mr. Webb prevented him from publishing any thing during his life. 'Tis pity that the judgment of the editor did not co-operate with the author's diffidence, and suppress the publication of these Sermons after his decease.

The Duties of the Parochial Clergy of the Church of England considered, in a Charge delivered to the Clergy of the Diocese of Bangor, in 1784. By John, Lord Bishop of Bangor. 4to. 2s. Davis.

This is a sensible, useful, and unaffected discourse, becoming the character of the respectable prelate who delivered it. In an Appendix to it are directions concerning the instruments proper to be brought for obtaining orders, &c.

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The Romp: a Musical Entertainment, in Two Acts; altered from Love in the City. 8vo. 1s. Lowndes.

The merits of this musical entertainment will not bear the examination of criticism; and nothing but the comic powers of Mrs. Jordan could have procured it a repetition upon the stage.

N O V E L S.

The Gamesters. A Novel. In Three Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d. sewed. Baldwin.

Though we trace our author in the footsteps of some of her predecessors, we must still allow her considerable merit. The characters are not less distinguished by their bold and faithful outlines, than by a warmth of colouring, and spirited attitude. In some respects they are superior to their originals; for they rise to a distorted caricature, though somewhat removed from real life. The language is animated and easy; frequently elegant: the pathos is well managed, and properly contrasted. We would not, however, be understood too generally: the story has faults in its conduct, and, in some instances, improbability; nor are its merits, even when perspicuous, always unalloyed; but, while we cannot be blind to its faults, we ought to praise its excellencies; and when the latter are so numerous they will, in the eye of every candid critic, lessen or obscure the former.

The Liberal American. A Novel. In a Series of Letters. By a Lady. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Lane.

We often suspect these professional ladies, when the title is not supported by internal evidence. The only proof in the work before us, is the number of marriages. The author, like Mrs. Centlive, 'fairly puts all characters to bed.' As to the sentiments, language, and situations, we can say little in their favour. It is a dull, insipid narrative, related in uninteresting letters.

P O E T R Y.

Poems and Plays. By William Hayley, Esq. Small 8vo. 6 Vols. 1l. 1s. Cadell.

Having already expressed the high opinion we entertain of Mr. Hayley's poetical genius, it is unnecessary for us to make any other observation on the present edition of his works, where the only new piece we meet with is an Ode to the Countess de Genlis, in which the author compliments her, in an elegant strain, on the ingenuity and moral tendency of her writings.

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The India Guide; or a Journal of a Voyage to the East Indies, in the Year 1780. In a Portical Epistle to her Mother, by Miss Emily Brittle. Small 8vo. Printed at Calcutta.

This work is dedicated to Mr. Anstie, of whose ingenious Bath Guide it has been evidently intended as an imitation; but, like most of the productions founded in an attempt at similitude, falls extremely short of the original. It consists of several epistles, written on board the East-Indiaman, in which Miss Brittle sailed from the Cape of Good Hope, and from Madras; describing her disagreeable situation at sea, the characters of the officers and passengers, the manners of the Dutch at the Cape, with her reception at Madras, and the state of society in that quarter. In this Epistle, she must not be denied all pretensions to merit; and the scenes being exotic, are calculated to afford entertainment by their novelty.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Hydrometrical Observations and Experiments in the Brewery. 8vo. 2s. Robinson.

We are pleased to see that observations of this kind are widely diffused, and that science is extending her connection with arts usually accounted practical. These rules and experiments are clear and perspicuous; perhaps more intelligible to the common brewers than the 'Statistical Estimates' which we lately reviewed: at the same-time the authors do not essentially differ.

Our present author uses, or at least seems to use, the common hydrometer: Mr. Richardson employed one somewhat different. The alteration, in Mr. Bayerstock's opinion, is not advantageous, and may, by being frequently employed, become ineffectual. But this must be decided by observation.

Another variation in opinion occurs in the method of forming average and standard gravities. Mr. Richardson makes his trials on worts in the copper, and estimates the quantity to be boiled away: Mr. Bayerstock thinks this an useless labour, and prefers delaying the examination till the whole is put into the cooler. The latter is more easy and certain, if we wish only to know the *actual* strength; but the former appears to be necessary, if we wish to bring the wort to a *given* strength. Each method will probably have its peculiar advocates, and each will be employed according to the intention and design of the brewer. On the whole, this work is written with clearness and precision, and deserves commendation.

Flora Cantabrigiensis Supplementum, Auctore Richardo Relhan, A. M. Collegii Regalis Capellano. 8vo. 1s. Cadell.

The labours of the industrious are always rewarded. Our author has resumed his task; and added considerably to his

Flora.

Flora. The additions are chiefly different species of grass, and some species of the class of cryptogamia. We find the same diligence and attention which we formerly commended: the additional references are to Bauhine and to Dickson. We sincerely hope that the impediments which the author hints at will be removed; and that he will be enabled to persist in an office, for which he is well qualified.

Elements of English: being a new Method of teaching the whole Art of Reading, both with Regard to Pronunciation and Spelling. Part the First. By Thomas Sheridan, A. M. 12mo. 1s. Dilly.

Mr. Sheridan's abilities in this branch of science are so well known, that to praise them would be equally superfluous and impertinent. This little work is clear, comprehensive, and satisfactory. In some instances, as in his Dictionary, we see traces of a provincial pronunciation; but this subject is so fleeting and uncertain, that perhaps no one can properly criticise the pronunciation of another. In general, those whose ears are accurate, and whose companions are among the learned of higher rank, will agree in pronouncing many words; but a few will always remain, where a difference is not only obvious, but the various opinions on the subject will be strenuously defended.

'None go just alike, but each believes his own.'

A high sense of the importance of his work (for every man thinks that work important in which he has been long engaged) has led Mr. Sheridan into some ludicrous remarks. If they occur in the following specimen, we hope our readers will not consider it as chosen to lessen him in the public estimation, since few estimate him more highly than ourselves; but we have subjoined it, as containing a good reason for what many have thought a fanciful innovation.

'Children ought not to be taught to sound the consonants in the promiscuous manner in which they are found in the alphabet. The natural order is first to begin with the labials, as those are the first sounds uttered by all the children in all parts of the globe; on which account the words baba, papa, mama, are the names given to parents in almost all languages. The reason is, that the lips of the infant, being constantly employed in the action of sucking, become strong and active sooner than the other organs of speech. To these succeed the dentals; and the next sounds uttered by children are da and ta, or the same sounds doubled, as, da-da, ta-ta; and this arises from the tongue's being constantly exercised about the gums, to alleviate the pain while they are cutting their teeth. The last and hardest sounds are the palatines, which requiring that the tongue should be drawn back, an action to which it had not been accustomed, are the most difficult to attain; but by sound-
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ing them frequently with the vowel before, as eg, ek, will soon be caught. Children should never be urged to pronounce any words containing letters whose sounds they had not first mastered; for in that case, they either wholly omit those letters, or change them to others which they were able to pronounce before. Thus, for lady, they either say, ady or dady; for coach, toach; for go, do; and so on. Now, from this method of permitting children to attempt all words alike, before they can pronounce all the letters contained in them, bad habits are often contracted, which are not easily changed.'

An Introduction to Reading and Spelling. Written on a new Plan, and designed as a Spelling Book for the Use of Schools. By the Rev. J. Hewlett. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

If Mr. Hewlett purposes only to teach children, he has done too much; if he aims at instructing foreigners, or correcting a provincial pronunciation, too little. The child cannot learn every word in his elements; he should be taught a few, and, in the rest, instructed to teach himself. On the other hand, the great fault of the foreigner and the provincial is in tone, or rhythm, which no rules can teach. Yet, on the whole, as this work is executed with care and attention, its redundancy can be no great fault. A judicious master can omit what may be superfluous; and the foreigner should not be disgusted at the preliminary observations, and some of the grammatical distinctions, suitable only for children. We should not perhaps have expected that this little work was intended to have reached beyond the limits of the reading-school, if the author had not pointed out its numerous advantages.

Fabulous Histories designed for the Instruction of Children, respecting their Treatment of Animals. By Mrs. Trimmer. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Robinsons.

There is much good sense, and useful instruction, in this little volume; but the vehicle is so very childish, that we fear the author's purpose will be defeated. In this, however, we may be mistaken; for to mean well, and to labour assiduously in support of well-meant designs, will deck even imperfections with such pleasing colours, that we shall often mistake them for excellencies. May this lady's good-intentions be rewarded with the suitable improvement of her pupils.

The Happy Family; or, Memoirs of Mr. and Mrs. Norton. Intended to shew the delightful Effects of Filial Obedience. Small 12mo 6d. Marshall.

This little book is free from the imperfections which we lately pointed out in the 'Village School,' and the 'Rotchfords;' but the sentences are too complicated, and the sentiment frequently obscured by too many words. There are few tasks more difficult than to write proper books for children, and there are few more carelessly and exceptionably executed. The
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moral in the work before us, is not less clear than salutory; and the instructions are perfectly proper.

Tour to Ermenouville. 12mo. 2s. Becket.

This pamphlet bears strong intrinsic marks of having been written as a catch-penny; but it may, nevertheless, afford some entertainment to those readers who take pleasure in the most trivial anecdotes relative to the celebrated Rousseau, concerning which it is employed.

A Classical Dictionary of the Vulgar Tongue. 8vo. 4s. Hooper.

The materials of this extraordinary Lexicon could be collected only from the mouths of the vulgar; and to the criticism of such we must consign it.

Pocket Made Mecum through Monmouthshire and Part of South Wales. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Bew.

A dull, superficial itinerary, having neither description nor information to recommend it.

The Trial of Isaac Prescot, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Lister.

This Trial was held in the Consistory Court at the Doctors Commons, and relates to such barbarous treatment, received by a wife from her husband, as is, perhaps, scarcely to be exceeded by any instance in the annals of domestic life. This highly injured lady, it seems, is the daughter of the Rev. Mr. Walter, who was chaplain to the Centurion during the celebrated voyage of commodore Anson. It would only wound the humanity of our readers, to recite the savage cruelty which is confirmed by the evidence in this Trial; and we shall, therefore, conclude with a congratulation, that a sentence of divorce has put a period to such unmanly and execrable tyranny.

A Natural Method of teaching the French Language. By M. Maubach. 8vo. 3s. Hookham.

Monf. Maubach, by his own acknowledgement, has not studied to adapt himself to the capacity of children; but, on the contrary, to rise above the common method of teachers, by rendering their instructions, a kind of introduction to the sciences. This plan is doubtless well intended; but we much fear, that by adding to the difficulty of acquiring the language, it might retard the progress of the learner.

The Surveyor's Appointment and Guide. 4to. 6d. T. Payne.

In this little tract, the author has concisely translated, out of statute language, the duty of a surveyor of the highways. The production, we own, is not without its use; for of every species of composition, that of the legislative authors, in this country, is the most exceptionable, and even disgraceful, both in point of grammar and common sense.

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An Authentic Account of Forgeries and Frauds of various Kinds committed by that most consummate Adept in Deception, Charles Price, otherwise Patch, many Years a Lottery Office Keeper in London and Westminster. 8vo. 1s. Kearsley.

Those who have any curiosity for the account of a most accomplished impostor, may be gratified by this pamphlet, in which we doubt not the facts are genuine, though we cannot much applaud the attempt that is made at an imitation of the humour of Fielding. The account is ornamented with a plate, exhibiting Price's figure, both in his usual dress and his disguise.

'He was about five feet six inches high, and a compact neat-made man, rather square shoulders, and somewhat inclined to corpulency, his legs firm and well-set; but, by nature, his features made him look much older than he really was, which was forty-five. His nose was what we call a parrot's nose, his eyes small and grey; his mouth stood very much inwards, with very thin lips, his chin pointed and prominent, with a pale complexion: but what contributed as much as any thing to favour his disguise of speech, was his loss of teeth. He walked exceedingly upright, was very active and quick in his walk, and was, what we describe a man to be, when we call him a dapper-made man.'

This was his natural appearance; but how different, in his disguise, will be seen from the following short extract:

'In October, 1780, which was about the lottery time, Mr. Price put an advertisement into the paper, in which he required a servant who had been used to live with a single gentleman, and the direction was to *C. C. Marlborough Coffee-house, Broad-street, Carnaby-market*. An honest young man, and who then lived with a musical instrument-maker in the Strand, whose name, for very obvious reasons, we keep secret, not being much wanted by his master, and having been desired by that master to look into the papers for a place, happened to read Mr. Price's advertisement, and accordingly sent a letter to the Marlborough Coffee-house, as directed. He heard nothing further of this for a week, when one evening, just as it was dusk, a coach drove up to his master's door, and the coachman enquired for the man who had answered the advertisement, at the same time saying there was a gentleman over the way in a coach wanted to speak with him.' On this the young fellow was called, and went to the coach, where he was desired to step in. There he saw an apparent old man, a foreigner, gouty, wrapped up with five or six yards of flannel about his legs, a camblet turtout buttoned up over his chin, close to his mouth, a large patch over his left eye, and every part of his face so hid, that the young fellow could not see any part of it, but one eye, his nose, and a small part of his cheek. To carry on the deception still better, Mr. Price thought

thought proper to place the man on his left side, on which eye the patch was, so that the old gentleman could take an oblique look at the young man with his right eye, and discover then only a very small portion indeed of his face. He appeared by this disguise to be between sixty and seventy years of age; and afterwards, when the man saw him standing, not much under six feet high, owing to boots or shoes, with heels very little less than four inches. Added to this deception, he was so buttoned up and straightened as to appear perfectly lank.'

The Life of that extraordinary Character, Mr. Charles Price; wherein are minutely described the various Artifices he made use of in circulating his Forgeries on the Bank. 8vo. 1s. Ridgeway.

Another Narrative, in some parts copied, in others abridged, from the same materials, to gratify the public curiosity on this temporary subject. This is considerably less extensive than the preceding; and instead of the two contrasted figures, at full length, contains only a portrait of the unhappy man in the dress in which he usually appeared abroad.

C O R R E S P O N D E N C E.

WE acknowledge the receipt of the Old Planter's Letter, and can only add that our opinion on that work is established by the decisions of the ablest judges. As we have not the Philosophical Transactions at present near us, we cannot particularly refer to the paper. It is in French and English; and that which we allude to, is far from being so partial in its object as our correspondent represents: we recollect many parts of it very distinctly.

HAVING, at the close of our account of Mr. Fell's Answer to Mr. Farmer, mentioned the similarity which Mr. Fell endeavours to prove between the ideas of Mr. Farmer and those of Mr. Hume and lord Bolingbroke, on the subject of Miracles, we expressed our hopes that Mr. Farmer would favour the world with those exceptions which he wishes to maintain in behalf of the miracles of holy writ. A correspondent informs us that this is what Mr. Farmer *had already done* in the most explicit and satisfactory manner, in a passage immediately following Mr. Fell's last quotation. See his *Dissertation on Miracles*, p. 77—80.

A NOTE, apparently in the same hand-writing, assures us, that nothing was farther from the intention of the Editor of Dr. Johnson's Life of Dr. Watts, with Notes, &c. "than to make the public believe the whole of the work to be Dr. Johnson's."



T H E

CRITICAL REVIEW.

For M A R C H, 1786.

The History of Ancient Greece, its Colonies, and Conquests; from the earliest Accounts till the Division of the Macedonian Empire in the East. Including the History of Literature, Philosophy, and the Fine Arts. In Two Volumes. By John Gillies, LL.D. 4to. 2l. 2s. in Boards. Cadell.

Wherever learning diffuses its influence, the transactions of ancient Greece will continue to be regarded as the most interesting in the annals of human kind. So great is the splendour which illuminates this department of history, that it has excited the admiration of all succeeding ages of the world. Nor even at present, when the subjects of historical narrative are multiplied beyond the example of former times, seems any to be more happily adapted to the purposes of literary gratification. Both in our own and in foreign countries, the history of Greece has lately employed the exertion of several writers; and we now behold an additional candidate for the public favour, in this gymnasium, if we may use such a term, of historical abilities.

On a subject so often treated, however, it would be vain to expect any novelty from a writer, the most industrious in his researches. If he draws his materials from authentic sources of information; if, in dubious circumstances, he weighs with judgment the clashing testimony of different historians; if he arranges the various parts of the subject with order and perspicuity; if he preserves a just proportion in the delineation of the several objects, and animates the whole with a uniform vigour of style and sentiment; he performs whatever can afford gratification to the most inquisitive reader of history, or is necessary to obtain the approbation of impartial criticism.

Vol. LXI. March, 1786.

M

Dr.

Dr. Gillies commences his history with A View of the Progress of Civilization and Power in Greece, preceding the Trojan War. It is not surprising, that on a subject of so remote antiquity we should meet with little satisfactory information, when, after a lapse of several centuries from this period, all the efforts of the diligent Thucydides proved insufficient to investigate, with any precision, the state of his country, during a long revolution of ages antecedent to the time in which he lived. Our author observes in a note, and the remark cannot be invalidated by any positive authority, that, admitting the common chronology, there is reason to believe that the scattered fragments of Grecian history were preserved during thirteen centuries by oral tradition. With the use of alphabetic writing, compositions in prose began not earlier than about six centuries preceding the Christian æra; and though before this time, many transactions might be celebrated by the bards, who are known to have been numerous in ancient Greece, yet those rhapsodies, however founded in achievements which had really existed, were too much blended with fiction ever to be received implicitly as documents for historical narrative. But, dark as is the cloud which hangs over this portion of Grecian history, the materials, it is certain, are more copious than consistent; and to reduce them to order and perspicuity, is what those who are best acquainted with the difficulty and dryness of the subject, will admit to be not an enviable task.

After reciting the history of the Trojan war, the author takes a concise view of the religion, government, arts, manners, and character of the ancient Greeks; and in the same chapter he makes some observations on the rank of women in the heroic ages, concerning which we think his remarks are well founded.

* Two circumstances chiefly have rendered it difficult to explain the rank and condition of women in the heroic ages. The Greek word denoting a wife, is borrowed from a quality which equally applies to a concubine, and the same term is used indifferently to express both. But the women who in ancient Greece submitted to the infamy of prostitution, were generally captives taken in war, who were reduced by the cruel right of arms to the miserable condition of servitude. Hence it has been erroneously inferred, that in ancient Greece, wives as well as concubines were the slaves of their husbands. This mistaken notion it has been attempted to confirm, not only by insisting on the humiliating condition of the fair sex in the later ages of Greece, but by expressly asserting, that, in ancient times, they

they were purchased by their husbands. But this is to support one error by another. Before entering into the state of wedlock, it was customary for a man to make a mutual exchange of presents with his intended father-in-law. The Greeks had particular terms to express the present which he bestowed, as well as that which he received. The former, which has no corresponding term in the modern languages, is translated by the more general word "price," which has given rise to the false notion of the purchase and servitude of women; but the latter, which may with propriety be translated "dower," was given as a provision for the wife, both during marriage and after its dissolution, and was sufficient to deliver her from that supposed state of dependence on the husband, which never had any existence but in the imagination of the systematic writers of the present age.

We cannot help expressing a wish that our author had taken a more comprehensive view of the manners and customs of the ancient Greeks, than we find he has done in the course of the chapter above quoted. A delineation of some of them in particular, which he has totally omitted, would have greatly contributed towards affording a more clear and adequate idea of the genius of that celebrated people. We likewise wish that he had attempted to trace the gradual decay of that generosity of character, which distinguished the heroic ages, and shewn by what causes a nation, where commerce had not yet flourished to such an extent as to introduce any great degree of luxury, could degenerate so much from the magnanimous simplicity of their ancestors. With respect to the latter of these, indeed, we meet with a few observations in a subsequent chapter, which are as follow :

‘ As the singular manners and events of the heroic ages naturally produced the lofty strains of the epic muse, so the state of society in Greece, during the immediately succeeding periods, highly favoured the introduction of other kinds of poetry. The abolition of the royal governments gave free scope to the activity and turbulence of democracy; and the rivalships and enmities of neighbouring states, rankling in the minds of their citizens, prepared the imaginations of men for taking a malignant pleasure in works of invective and reproach. The innumerable causes of alienation, hatred, and disgust, which operated also within the bosom of each little republic, opened an inexhaustible source of satire. The competitions for civil offices, for military command, and for other places of trust, profit, or honour, all of which were conferred by the free suffrages of the people, occasioned irreconcilable variance between the ambitious members of the same community, and subjected the characters of men to mutual scrutiny and remark. The

sentiments of the Greeks not being perverted by the habits of slavery, nor restrained by the terrors of a despot, they boldly expressed what they freely thought; they might openly declare a just contempt; and, while they extolled in the lofty ode and swelling panegyric the heroes and patriots whom they admired, they lashed the cowards and traitors whom they despised, with all the severity of satire.

Our author's observations on the influence of the musical and poetical contests, related in the same chapter with the preceding extract, are likewise not unworthy of attention.

"In explaining the influence of the Grecian solemnities, we must not forget the musical and poetical exhibitions, which, from being employed to reward the victors in the gymnastic exercises, came to be themselves thought worthy of reward. The martial lessons of Tyrtaeus and Callinus admirably conspired with the effects which have already been described, encouraging the firm and manly virtues both by the enthusiasm with which their precepts were conveyed, and by the lively impressions which they gave of those objects for which it is important to contend. The courage depending on blood and nerves is uncertain and transitory in its existence, and even while it exists, may be indifferently employed to purposes beneficial or destructive. It belonged to the martial bards to determine its doubtful nature, to fix and illustrate its genuine motives, and to direct it to the proper objects of its pursuit.

'The musical entertainments thus strengthened, refined, and exalted the manly principles inspired by all the customs and institutions of that warlike age. But as bravery is a hardy plant that grows in every soil, the most beneficial consequence of the arts consisted in infusing a proper mixture of softness and sensibility into the Grecian character. This is well known to be their effect in every country where they are allowed to flourish. The Greeks, in a peculiar manner, required their assistance; nor could it have been possible for that people, without the happy influence of the arts, to controul the barbarity naturally occasioned by their constant employment in war, the savage cruelty introduced by the practice of domestic servitude, and the intolerable ferocity which seems essentially inherent in the nature of democratical government. Amidst these sources of degeneracy and corruption, the time and application necessary to attain proficiency in the pursuits of genius, habituated the Greeks to gentle amusements, and innocent pleasures. The honours and rewards bestowed on the successful candidates for literary fame, engaged them to seek happiness and glory in the peaceful shade of retirement, as well as on the contentious theatre of active life; and the observations and discoveries occasionally suggested by the free communication of sentiment,

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strengthened and confirmed those happy prejudices which combat on the side of virtue, and enforce the practice of such rules of behaviour as are most useful and agreeable in society.

‘ If the musical and literary entertainments acquired such an happy influence over the moral dispositions of the heart, they produced a still more considerable effect on the intellectual faculties of the mind. It is almost impossible, in the present age, to conceive the full extent of their efficacy in improving the memory, animating the imagination, and correcting the judgment. As to the memory, indeed, there is a period in the progress of society preceding the introduction of writing, when the energies of this faculty have been exerted among many nations with a wonderful degree of force. Even among the barbarous Celtic inhabitants of our own island, the Druids could repeat an incredible number of verses, containing the knowledge of their history, laws, and religion; and a period of twenty years was required to complete the poetical studies of a candidate for the priesthood.

‘ But if the Greeks were equalled by other nations in the exercise of the memory, they have always been unrivalled in the delicacy of their taste, and the inimitable charms of their fancy. These excellencies, whether originally produced by natural or moral causes, or more probably by a combination of both, were, doubtless, extended and improved by emulation and habitual exercise. To this exercise the public solemnities afforded a proper field; and, in the contests of music and poetry, were displayed the opening blossoms of Grecian genius, blossoms which afterwards ripened into those fruits of philosophy and eloquence, that will form the admiration and delight of the last ages of the world.’

The public transactions of ancient Greece were so much influenced by the passions of men, that the recital of them presents us not only with the general history of the several states, but what is yet more instructive to a philosophical reader, with that of the human mind. In different parts of the present work, Dr. Gillies has attempted to avail himself of this observation; and we frequently find him deducing moral reflections from the events which he describes. In the account which he gives of the Grecian philosophy, he has adopted the opinion of the most approved writers on the subject; as he has likewise done, in delivering the literary character of the poets and other writers, whose transcendent merits have immortalized the fame of their country.

The history of Greece, so far as it can now be collected, being already well known, we have hitherto confined our extracts to other parts of the narrative; but before we conclude

our account of the first volume, we shall lay before our readers the following specimen of the author's style, in the historical part of the work,

' While the city (Athens) fell a prey to accumulated evils, the country was laid waste by an implacable enemy. On the present occasion, the confederates advanced beyond Athens; they destroyed the works of the miners on Mount Laurium; and, having ravaged all that southern district, as well as the coast opposite to Eubœa and Naxos, they traced a line of devastation along the Marathonian shore, the glorious scene of an immortal victory, obtained by the valour of Athens, in defence of those very states by which her own territories were now so cruelly desolated.

' If conscious wisdom and rectitude were not superior to every assault of fortune, the manly soul of Pericles must have sunk under the weight of such multiplied calamities. But his fortitude still supported him amidst the flood of public and domestic woe. With decent and magnanimous composure he beheld the unhappy fate of his numerous and flourishing family, successively snatched away by the rapacious pestilence. At the funeral of the last of his sons he dropped, indeed, a few reluctant tears of paternal tenderness. But, ashamed of this momentary weakness, he bent his undejected mind to the defence of the republic. Having collected an hundred Athenian, together with fifty Chian or Lesbian vessels, he sailed through the Saronic gulph, and ravaged the unprotected coasts of Elis, Argos, and Laconia. While this armament weighed anchor in the Piræus, there happened an eclipse of the sun, which terrified the superstitious mariners, whose minds were already clouded by calamity. The pilot of the admiral galley betrayed the most unmanly cowardice, when Pericles, throwing a cloak before his eyes, asked, "whether the obscurity surprised him?" the pilot answering in the negative, "neither," rejoined Pericles, "ought an eclipse of the sun, occasioned by the intervention of the revolving planet, which intercepts its light."

' Having arrived on the Argolic coast, the Athenians laid siege to the sacred city Epidaurus, whose inhabitants gloried in the peculiar favour of Æsculapius. The plague again breaking out in the fleet, was naturally ascribed to the vengeance of that offended divinity. They raised the siege of Epidaurus; nor were their operations more successful against Troezené, Hermioné, and other Peloponnesian cities. They took only the small fortress of Prasæ, a sea-port of Laconia; after which they returned to the Piræus, afflicted with the pestilence, and without having performed any thing that corresponded to the greatness of the armament, or the public expectation.

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‘ The Athenian expedition into Thrace was still more unfortunate. Into that country Agnon conducted a body of four thousand men, to co-operate with Phormio, in the siege of Potidæa. But in the space of forty days, he lost one thousand and fifty men in the plague; and the only consequence of his expedition was, to infect the northern army with that melancholy disorder.

‘ These multiplied disasters reduced the Athenians to despair. Their sufferings exceeded example and belief, while they were deprived of the only expected consolation, the pleasure of revenge. The bulk of the people desired peace on any terms. Ambassadors were sent to Sparta, but not admitted to an audience. The orators clamoured and traduced Pericles. The undiscerning populace ascribed their misfortunes to the unhappy effect of his councils; but his magnanimity did not yet forsake him, and, for the last time, he addressed the assembly: “ Your anger, Athenians! occasions no surprise, because it comes not unexpected. Your complaints excite no resentment, because to complain is the right of the miserable. Yet, as you mistake both the cause and the measure of your present calamity, I will venture to expose such dangerous, and, if not speedily corrected, such fatal errors. The justice and necessity of the war I have often had occasion to explain: it is just that you who have protected and saved, should govern Greece: it is necessary, if you would assert your pre-eminence, that you should now resist the Peloponnesians. On maintaining this resolution, not your honour only, but your safety, depends. The sovereignty of Greece cannot, like an empty pageant of grandeur, be taken up with indifference, or without danger laid down. That well-earned dominion, which you have sometimes exercised tyrannically, must be upheld and defended, otherwise you must submit, without resource, to the resentment of your injured allies, and the animosity of your inveterate enemies. The hardships to which you were exposed from the latter, I foresaw and foretold; the pestilence, that sudden and improbable disaster, it was impossible for human prudence to conjecture; yet great and unexpected as our calamities have been, and continue, they are still accidental and transitory, while the advantages of this necessary war are permanent, and its glory will be immortal. The greatness of that empire which we strive to uphold, extends beyond the territories of our most distant allies. Of the two elements, destined for the use of men, the sea and the land, we absolutely command the one, nor is there any kingdom, or republic, or confederacy, that pretends to dispute our dominion. Let this consideration elevate our hopes; and personal afflictions will disappear at the view of public prosperity. Let us bear, with resignation, the strokes of providence; and we shall repel, with vigour, the assaults of our enemies. It is the hereditary and glorious distinction of our

republic, never to yield to adversity. We have defied danger, expended treasure and blood; and, amidst obstinate and formidable wars, augmented the power, and extended the fame, of a city, unrivalled in wealth, populousness, and splendour, and governed by laws and institutions worthy its magnificence and renown. If Athens must perish (as what human grandeur is not subject to decay?) let her never fall, at least, through *our* pusillanimity; a fall that would cancel the merit of our former virtue, and destroy at once that edifice of glory which it has been the work of ages to rear. When our walls and harbours are no more; when the terror of our navy shall have ceased, and our external magnificence fallen to decay, the glory of Athens shall remain. This is the prize which I have hitherto exhorted, and still exhort you to defend, regardless of the clamours of sloth, the suspicions of cowardice, or the persecution of envy."

Such were the sentiments of Pericles, who, on this occasion, declared to his assembled countrymen, with the freedom of conscious merit, that he felt himself inferior to none in wisdom to discover, and abilities to explain and promote, the measures most honourable and useful; that he was a sincere and ardent lover of the republic, unbiassed by the dictates of selfishness, unseduced by the allurements of partiality, and superior to the temptations of avarice. The anger of the Athenians evaporated in imposing on him a small fine, and soon after they re-elected him general. The integrity and manly firmness of his mind restored the fainting courage of the republic. They rescued the dignity of Pericles from the rage of popular frenzy; but they could not defend his life against the infectious malignity of the pestilence. He died two years and six months after the commencement of the war. The character which he draws of himself is confirmed by the impartial voice of history, which adds a few circumstances proper to confirm the texture of a virtuous and lasting fame. During the first invasion of the Peloponnesians, he declared that he would convey his extensive and valuable estate to the public, if it should be excepted from the general devastation, by the policy or the gratitude of Archidamus, his hereditary guest and friend. Yet this generous patriot lived with the most exemplary economy in his personal and domestic expence. His death-bed was surrounded by his numerous admirers, who dwelt with complacency on the illustrious exploits of his glorious life. While they recounted the wisdom of his government, and enumerated the long series of his victories by sea and land, "You forget," said the dying statesman and sage, "you forget the only valuable part of my character: none of my fellow-citizens was ever compelled, through any action of mine, to assume a mourning robe. He expired, teaching an invaluable lesson to human

human kind, that in the last important hour, when all other objects disappear, or lose their value, the recollection of an innocent life is still present to the mind, and still affords consolation, more valuable than Pericles could derive from his nine trophies erected over the enemies of his country, from his long and prosperous administration of forty years, the depth of his political wisdom, the perfection of his military and naval skill, and the immortal fame of his unrivalled eloquence.'

Through the early part of this history, where an author is under the necessity of having recourse to very obscure materials, Dr. Gilhes has implicitly followed, as indeed he could not do otherwise, the common tract of preceding historians: nor has he, in general, less closely adhered to the usual authorities, in the more enlightened periods of his subject, notwithstanding what he informs us, of his having consulted ancient writers, whose works are seldom perused. He has, at the same time, in various places, endeavoured to embellish a trite narrative with ornaments rather meretricious than suitable to the gravity of historical composition. But we are always inclined to view with a degree of indulgence the conduct of a writer, who, when he cannot maintain a novelty of sentiment, descends to solicit the imagination.

[To be concluded in our next.]

Ancient Scottish Poems, never before in Print; but now published from the MS. Collections of Sir Richard Maitland, of Lethington, Knight, Lord Privy Seal of Scotland; and a Senator of the College of Justice. Comprising Pieces written from about 1420 till 1586. With large Notes, and a Glossary. Vol. I. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Dilly.

THE laudable desire of examining the antiquities of our country, has occasioned many works of our old poets to be emancipated from the dust and obscurity of musty libraries, that they may be, for a short period, admired by antiquaries acquainted with old language, and perhaps return to oblivion, probably to a duration from which they will not again escape. While this taste continued, many modern poems were given to the public as ancient, which, though they could never, for a moment, impose on the real judge, have been greedily received, and held up to admiration, as precious monuments of ancient genius: poems, really ancient, have been recovered from the cobwebs by which they were concealed, and

and from worms; which had already commenced their depredations. Two volumes of this kind, of superior merit, were noticed in our fifty-second and fifty-sixth volumes: other collections we shall, in pity to their editors, conceal, though we mean not to consign to oblivion Dr. Percy's elegant work, the *Evergreen*, or lord Hailes' publication from the Banantyne MS. The latter, though little known, deserves considerable praise. The *Evergreen* first communicated some valuable pieces; but it is, in many respects, an inaccurate, and, in others, an exceptionable publication: if we wished to know the taste of the present times, we should not dive into the annals of Grub-street; and a few of the pieces collected by Ramsay are of the grossest kind. It is also justly observed by lord Hailes, that those 'who look in the *Evergreen* for the state of language and poetry among the Scots, during the sixteenth century, will be misled or disappointed;' for he has modernized the versification, and altered the spelling.

Mr. Pinkerton tells us, in his title, that these pieces were never before in print, and now published from the manuscript collections of sir Richard Maitland, comprising pieces written from about 1420 to 1586. This may be very true; but he informs us also that it is easy to deceive; and that, from the sentiments, idioms, and transitions, he is certain that *Hardyknute*, a pretended ancient poem, is the production of this century, and written by sir John Bruce. But he goes on.

'Of the Second Part of *Hardyknute*, written in 1776, but not published till 1781, the editor must now confess himself guilty. As for his secret, he has observed the Horatian precept he at first laid down to himself, *nonum prematur in annum*; and requests pardon both of his friends and the public for keeping it to himself. The fiction, as the publisher can inform, could not possibly have any fordid view, as the MS. was presented to him, and one half of the future profits, which was offered, was refused. For the imposition, it was only meant to give pleasure to the public; and no vanity could be served where the name was unknown. As to the vanity or pleasure of imposing on others, if there be such ideas, they are quite unknown to the editor. Perhaps, like a very young man as he was, he had pushed one or two points of the deception a little too far; but he always thought that novel and poetry had no bounds of fiction.'

Again,

'Since the editor is in the confessional, he must not omit that, in the first volume of the *Select Scotch Ballads*, beside the Second Part of *Hardyknute*, N^o 16; *The Laird of Woodhouselee*

bouselie is written by him, as is No. 17, Lord Livingston; yet of both he had small lines from tradition. No. 18, Binnorie, is one half from tradition, one half by the editor; though he could not now himself distinguish the lines. No. 19, Death of Menteith, is wholly by the editor, upon no tradition whatever. No. 20, Lord Airth's Complaint, is from a MS. then, and now, in the editor's possession. No. 21, I wish I were where Helen lyes, is all the editor's, save the three first lines, which he heard a lady repeat. Lord Hailes informs him that there is another ballad beginning

“ I wish I were where Helen lyes
On fair Kirkonell lee,”

that is very pathetic; and that he has heard a lady repeat it who is now dead. Ramsay, however, in the Tea-table Miscellany, gives a song to this tune, which shows that the editor's measure is right; repeating the second and fourth line for pathetic effect. Of the Fragments, III. and IV. are wholly by the editor. In the second volume, Nos. XXVI. XXIX. XXXI. XXXIV. XXXVI. XL. XLIII. XLV. XLVIII. are wholly by the editor, who only observes, in a note, p. 188, that these pieces “ have not appeared in print.”

It requires a more accurate examination than we have been able to bestow, and a longer discussion than our limits will admit, to determine whether our editor has been practising his usual manœuvres. After reading his confession, we suspected, in two poems, modern transitions, and an elegance of phraseology, unsuitable to the times; but perhaps we have been too scrupulous: the former dupe sees fallacy in every countenance; and will naturally believe, that he who could once impose on the public, may do it again. In general, Mr. Pinkerton seems to have been a correct transcriber, and we are inclined, in the greater number of instances, to acquit him of this species of literary forgery.

The Preface gives an account of the poems, and abounds with original and learned observations, and bold dogmatical assertions. We were transported again to the Letters of Robert Heron, Esq. and were ready to exclaim, ‘ aut Erasmi est aut Diaboli.’ Perhaps we may catch this changing Proteus, who shifts his shape with such wonderful rapidity, and he will probably prove an ‘ alter & idem,’ varying, like some late adventurers, in his dress, but generally discoverable by his gait. If Mr. Pinkerton and Mr. Heron are the same, he will deserve our attention; since his acquisitions, at so early an age, are indeed surprising; for he is now only twenty-eight years old. At a more mature period, he may learn to distrust himself; he may forget his dogmatism and illiberality, and

and retain only his knowlege and his genius : he then would be a pleasing companion, a valuable friend, and we should recognize him with pleasure.

Ancient poetry, the feast, the dear delight of the antiquary, is not very generally relished : we were roused into a temporary enthusiasm by the ancient modern Ossian ; but, when other editors attempted to gratify this taste, by poems more certainly of an early date, and spelling more antiquated, the labour of reading was not repaid by the pleasures which were communicated by the poetry. A refined age must have all its amusements, without the labour of attainment ; and even Chatterton's more polished lines did not compensate for the obscurity thrown around them by the old spelling : we believe that they were more generally celebrated than read. Every ancient poem is unequal, and its real merits are not well understood. A concise, comprehensive, bold expression ; a genuine stroke of nature, warm from the heart ; occasional views of manners with which we are little acquainted ; and some beautiful poetical imagery, are interspersed ; but they are ' *rari, nantes in gurgite vasto.*' Pages of prolix, uninteresting description, a long dull allegory, and sometimes gross indecencies, fill up the picture ; relieved, indeed, by occasional beauties, but obscured by dark tints, and rendered frequently disgusting by uncouth objects. It may be asked, to what purpose they are published ? They are useful, as they mark the progress of society and language : in spite of the *laudatores temporis acti*, they endear to us our own times ; and those who can read them with ease are highly delighted with transient gleams of nature, elegance, and poetry. Our editor is a little more sanguine.

' Upon the whole, the editor hopes that this collection, which to him has afforded an amusement and relaxation from more important study, will also afford some amusement to the public ; if simple and genuine poetry may please a refined people, or if plain sense may hope to be read in this age of sentiment and suicide. The antiquated language and orthography may perhaps militate against the intrinsic merit of the poetry ; but every reader of Chaucer may, with very little help from the Glossary, peruse this collection.'

We believe that

' No man of either kingdom would wish an extinction of the Scottish dialect in poetry. At first, as shewn in the following Essay, a sister language, it became a kind of Doric dialect to the English ; and has a simplicity which will always recommend it where that character ought to prevail. But it were to be

be wished, that it should be regarded in both kingdoms equally as only an ancient and a poetical language; and nothing can take it so much out of the hands of the vulgar as a rigid preservation of the old spelling. Were there no Scottish books that the common people in Scotland could read, their knowledge of the English would increase very rapidly. But while they are enraptured with Barbour's History of Bruce, Blind-Harry's Life of Wallace, and the works of Sir David Lindsay, books to be found in modern spelling at this day in almost every cottage of Scotland, their old dialect will maintain its ground. Were these books to be published only in their original orthography, not one in a hundred of the peasantry could read them; and of course they would be forced to read English. In short, the old Scottish poets ought to be regarded in the same light as Chaucer and the old English ones; and who suspects that the perusal of the latter can injure the purity of English conversation or writing? The contrary is so far true, that I will venture to say that a man who writes a language, without acquaintance with its early state, may compose well from chance, but never from intelligence. For knowledge of the primitive and progressive powers of words is the only solid foundation of that rich and terse style which posterity pronounces classic. As long as Chaucer is read, therefore, and he will be read till the English language perishes, so long may we hope for equal attention to Barbour and Dunbar. The English reader of Chaucer will in them, with the slightest help of a glossary, be delighted with equal pictures of manners; and unpolished diamonds of genuine poetry: and, at the same time, enjoy every pleasure of variety from a Doric dialect of his own language, venerable from its antiquity, nay sacred from its primitive dedication to poetry; the old English bards being all of the *north countrie*, and their metrical romances being almost Scottish, because the language spoken in the North of England and the South of Scotland, was anciently almost the same as it is at this day.

These sentiments are in general as just as they are forcibly and well expressed: we have quoted them, because we would appeal to our author against himself, when he speaks of the Gentle Shepherd, as written in language mean, vulgar, and indelicate. To an English ear it has the pleasing simplicity of the Doric; and, by those most accustomed to the same language, it is said to be greatly admired. To what then shall we attribute our author's dislike of it? to his former habits, and to a wish to rise above them? to refine away simplicity and nature by an artificial polish. If this explanation seems to detract from his good sense he must excuse it, since we cannot find
any

any other for an affected singularity. The author of this famous pastoral is not yet known. Mr. Pinkerton attributes it to Allan Ramfay; and even the intelligent lord Hailes observes, that they who attempt to depreciate his fame, by insinuating, 'that his friends and patrons composed the works which pass under his name, ought first to prove that his friends and patrons were capable of composing the Gentle Shepherd.' To this we cannot reply; but shall only remark, that he who has once so far excelled, seldom, on every other occasion, has sunk so low.

The Preface is followed by an Essay on the Origin of Scottish Poetry, in which, that nothing may be omitted, he goes so far back as the creation of the world; and, in his bold manner, arraigns the folly of those who search the Scriptures for a support of philosophic systems. He throws great light on the dispute between the Scotch and Irish, relating to the source of the population of Scotland; and his arguments, with very slight exceptions, are, on the whole, satisfactory. They are drawn out with a bold and careless, but masterly hand; they are glowing sketches, more valuable than a finished piece. After speaking of the Picts, and the other ancient inhabitants of Scotland, he says,

'The origin of the Scots remains alone for discussion. That they came from Ireland is so clear from Beda's positive, and repeated assertions, that it is unnecessary to mention the collateral testimonies of Claudian, Gildas, and others, on this point. It appears from many writers, that Ireland was the first Scotia; and it is evident from Beda, who wrote in 731, that Ireland was also the Scotia of his time. Usher goes so far as to say, that Scotia always implies Ireland in every writer down to the eleventh century. Others, on the contrary, think it clear from Eginhart, that Scotland began to be called Scotia about the year 800. The reason of this confusion is, that both countries were inhabited by Scots; Ireland first, and Caledonia afterwards. The Roman writers, the surest guides on this head, seem to evince that there was no settlement of the Scots in Caledonia till after the year 400. Fergus, whom the Scottish fabulists call the Second, but who was in fact the First, and with whom, as is well known, commences the line of Scottish monarchs, began his reign, as Mr. Innes shews by Scottish Chronicles older than Fordun, by the genealogy given by Fordun himself, and by Irish annals, about the year 503. Now, from the year 400 to that period, may be placed the Fingalian epoch of Scottish history; for I take Fingal and his heroes to have been the leaders of the Scots from Ireland, as Odin and his heroes led the Goths from Asia. This opinion is confirmed by

by the whole traditional poems in the Highlands; which, however stated by Mr. Macpherson, always represent Fingal as contemporary with St. Patrick, who flourished about 430.

'The whole ancient writers confirm my sentiments upon this subject; which are, that the Irish, afterwards called Scots, always molested the shores of Britain, from the very time of Julius, in like manner as the Danes and Norwegians did afterward; but that they never settled here till after the year 400. Gildas and Beda tell us that the Hiberni or Scots, in 447, after being vanquished by the Britons, *domum redeunt post non multum tempus reversuri*; return home soon after to return; but that the Picts retained the extreme part of the island, *extremum insulæ partem*. This strongly implies, that the Scots, even then, had no home save Ireland. Claudian, about 40 years before, clearly mentions the Scots as confined to Ierne, or Ireland.'

In pursuing this enquiry, he is led to controvert Mr. Macpherson's opinion; whose knowledge, on these subjects, he treats with contempt. There is something too particular in the following passage, to need an apology for inserting it.

'This subject cannot be dismissed without a censure of the author of Ossian, for the singular embarrassment he has thrown upon the antiquities of Scotland, by his dreaming essays, and prefaces to that work. God knows our antiquities were too obscure before, without having an additional night of nonsense thrown around them! To ascribe poetry or romance to any age, though written by ourselves, is an innocent deceit; but to connect such writings with ancient history, nay to pretend to alter and correct ancient history by them, is so strange a breach of modesty, that I know not what to call it, no similar instance occurring in the annals of literature. Mr. Macpherson's learning is very ill digested, as Mr. Whitaker has shewn the public: yet, with all his ignorance of the ancient state of his own country, he has misled many. Dr. Henry, a Dutch compiler, though without Dutch learning, and Mr. Whitaker, a French visionary, though without French vivacity, may shake hands, and congratulate each other upon this solemn occasion. The danger is so much the greater, as Mr. Macpherson's genius is superlative*. He is himself the Homer of the Celtic tongue: he is, as Richardson says of Milton, an ancient, born fifteen hundred years after his time. His great genius will secure his fame: let him leave antiquarian researches to those who read

* * The great fault of Mr. Macpherson's Ossian lies in every sentence ending in a monosyllabic word: hence monotony. This is also the blemish of the Seasons, and of Paradise Lost: almost every paragraph of the latter poem ends in a word of one syllable; a great fault, but which has hitherto escaped notice.'

and think much, and who exert the sternest severity of truth over their minds.'

The observation in the note is new and strange; but we cannot assent to its truth.

Our author proceeds to the different kinds of poetry, and describes the Pictish, the Celtic, and the Gothic, in his usual pointed manner; but, as usual also, a little too decisively: in the following passage there is more than one mistake.

'But the Pictish poetry furnished the language, and therein the chief fund, of Scottish poetry. From the stormy heaths of Scandinavia seem also to have been transplanted several of these wild flowers which adorn the compositions of the old Scottish minstrels. The Irish poetry is all gloomy, the Scottish deals more in merriment; the Celtic nations seem to have been generally severe; the Gothic riotous. The carousal of Odin never appears in Celtic mythology, where the stern character of the Druids also influenced the people. The Celtic nations were in general peaceful and temperate; the Gothic, warlike and intemperate. Perpetual danger often begets luxury, from the desire of making the most of a perishable life. The Goths, with Regner Lodbrog, died laughing; and may be compared to the Egyptians, who, to promote hard drinking, had a skeleton put on the table. All the Celtic poetry, yet published, is grave; that of the Goths, chiefly heroic, because the best is such; but the Danish antiquaries give us to know that much is ludicrous, though the jests be now unintelligible.

'The Pictish poetry seems also to have bequeathed to the Scottish, a peculiarly wild horror, which frequently strikes the reader with the highest effect. But the antique force and simplicity of the language, was the chief permanent gift of the Pictish poetry to the Scottish.'

The music of the Scots, which abounds with exquisite expression and simple melody, is also, in our author's opinion, Pictish; and he is probably right. He pursues this subject in a concise manner, and then proceeds to the language: he thinks that the English, a sister dialect, already written, was assumed by the Scotch; and that it has been extending to this day. His arguments are acute, and probably just; but we suspect that they will not be generally convincing.

We have followed our author at some length, engaged, perhaps, by a partiality to the subject. What remains will carry us too far, so that it must be deferred to another Number.

Memoirs

Memoirs of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester.
2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. in Boards. Cadell.

WE cannot sufficiently commend those social and literary institutions, where sparks of science are struck out by a friendly collision of opposite sentiments ; and truth is adorned by the polished elegance of language. But we can commend only the meeting : the publication of crude, imperfect essays, though designed to introduce a conversation, and to draw out opinions which may be ultimately useful, must tend to degrade the institution, and to involve the design, as well as the most imperfect branches of it, in the same disgrace. If we were to judge of the society by their present volumes, we should not assign them an elevated rank in the world of science : a great part of their communications are, in themselves, insignificant and imperfect ; perhaps well adapted to introduce useful conversations, but unfit for the public eye as distinct essays. We mean not to involve the whole in one undistinguishing censure : the papers of Dr. Barnes are both judicious and elegant ; Dr. Falconer is, as usual, exact and well informed ; Mr. Delaval is instructive ; Mr. Henry, in some instances, enlarges the bounds of science, though in others, he perhaps pursues visionary refinements, or magnifies trifles into importance.

There is a rule in their institutions, which, at first view, seems an useful one, and which the superficial have commended, that no honorary member be admitted, who has not distinguished himself by some publication. We need not examine its effects farther than in the list of its honorary members, where it seems that this must have been the grand qualification to introduce some of the associates, who are very improperly placed with men of real science, and distinguished merit. But they ought to learn, that modest merit shuns the glare of day ; and that many might have instructed them by occasional essays, who would not venture to be distinguished as the authors of a separate work. To rush with an indecent haste before a venerable tribunal, to insult it with hasty and unsupported experiments, with trifling essays, or imperfect compilations, may entitle an author to the seat of an honorary member of this Society, but will not add to his character as a philosopher, or man of learning. We shall transcribe the titles of the papers, and enlarge a little on those which may appear particularly interesting.

N^o I. Some Remarks on the Opinion that the Animal Body possesses the Power of generating Cold. By George Bell, M. D.

Vol. LXI. March, 1786.

N

II. On

II. On the Advantages of Literature and Philosophy in general, and especially on the Consistency of Literary and Philosophical, with Commercial, Pursuits. By Thomas Henry, F. R. S.

III. On Crystallization. By Alexander Eason, M. D.

IV. On the Preservation of Sea Water from Putrefaction by Means of Quicklime. By Thomas Henry, F. R. S. To which is added, an Account of a newly invented Machine for impregnating Water, or other Fluids, with Fixed Air, &c.—It has been long known that sea water would putrify, and this quality has been frequently attributed to the exuvia of marine animals. Many have, however, suspected, that it might arise from the earthy salts contained in it; and that the septic property of culinary salt, in small quantities, was owing to the same cause. Mr. Henry seems to have shown, very clearly, that it is the effect of the muriated magnesia; and that, when the base is changed for one which is calcareous, the consequences are very different. It was once proposed to preserve anatomical preparations in sea water, to which it was well adapted, by its clearness and brilliancy; but, from its septic quality, the preparations were spoiled. It might be worth while to repeat the experiment, after the magnesia is separated. To this paper, the description of an useful machine to mix air with liquors, invented by Dr. Haygarth, is annexed. Mr. Henry proposed to preserve water sweet at sea by means of lime, which is afterwards to be precipitated by fixed air, and this machine was contrived for his purpose. We suspect, however, that it may be more effectually done by spirit of vitriol, which may be afterwards saturated with chalk. In this way, we should not have a greater proportion of selenite than in many hard waters, for a part of the earthy salt would fall down, and it is now well known, that the hardest waters are not injurious to health. If the ponderous earth, the terra ponderosa aërata, be ever discovered in large quantities in England, which there is much reason to expect, water may be preserved by the vitriolic acid, and the acidity afterwards destroyed by the earth, with which it forms an insoluble compound.

V. On the Nature and essential Characters of Poetry, as distinguished from Prose. By Thomas Barnes, D. D.—We have already commended the essays of Dr. Barnes: they are distinguished for their accuracy, their ingenuity, and their elegance. Our author examines the usual distinctions between these encroaching modes of composition, and finds a difficulty in fixing a determined outline, since the varying shades melt

into

imperceptibly into each other. His conclusion is, however, very judicious.

‘ To finished and perfect poetry, or rather to the highest order of poetic compositions, are necessary, elevation of sentiment, fire of imagination, and regularity of metre. This is the summit of Parnassus. But, from this sublimest point, there are gradual declinations, till you come to the region of prose. The last line of separation is, that of regular metre. And, in common language, not having settled with precision the nature or boundaries of either, we often apply the poetic character with great latitude, to compositions, which have more or less of the preceding qualities, but which are formed into uniform and regular verse. Often, the name is given to works, which have nothing to distinguish them, but mere number. What has not this metrical modulation, we call poetical; and what has it, we call prosaic, solely upon account of the sentiment.’

This paper, so far as it extends, is a finished piece of criticism, and, though it scarcely enlarges the bounds of the science, limits and distinguishes some of its parts with great precision. We have been so much pleased with it, that we shall present another passage to our readers.

‘ We have already observed, that, in the early ages of mankind, when their lives were filled with toils and dangers, and when new and interesting events were continually opening upon them, their passions would correspond to their situation, and would be various, vehement, and active. Civilization and science have, as it were, minced into finer portions, the feelings of the heart. By this means, we enjoy a far greater number of pleasurable sensations, and, upon the whole, I doubt not, a much larger sum of happiness. The life of an Indian consists either of glare or of darkness. He is either transported with passion, or sunk into stupor. These larger masses have been broken, by the hand of culture, into smaller pieces, which are in perpetual currency, and which maintain, among us, a more equal and constant enjoyment.

‘ But, from hence it will follow, that the strong poetic character may be expected to decline, as taste improves. We may, perhaps, hope to excel, in softness, delicacy, and refinement. But these are feeble graces. The mind soon tires with the perpetual chime of smooth versification, and with the unvaried flow of gentle and unimpassioned sentiment. The bursts of honest nature, the glow of animated feeling, the imagery, the enthusiasm—these are the charming properties which will for ever exalt the poems in which they are found, to the first order of poetic excellence. For these, no appendages of art can be deemed an adequate compensation.’

The next essay, *On the Affinity subsisting between the Arts: with a Plan for promoting and extending Manufactures*, by

encouraging those Arts on which Manufactures principally depend. By Thomas Barnes, D. D. deserves also to be particularly distinguished. It points out, with great strength of argument, the utility of extending our acquaintance beyond one object; and illustrates the advantages which the sciences mutually afford to each other.

‘It is in general said, that the knowledge, which, like the broad stream, flows over a wider surface, must be proportionably shallow; whilst that which runs in the narrow channel must be deep. But we are deceived by an image. We argue from a fancied resemblance. The mind, long poring upon one object, grows tired and feeble. It is necessary, sometimes, to change the object, in order to restore its tone and vigour. He, who can thus diversify his pursuits, keeps up the spring and energy of his powers, the ardour of his studies, the keenness of his research. He borrows ideas, images, illustrations, from kindred sciences. His mind widens with increasing knowledge. He sees every subject, as it were, in a larger field of vision. He views it round in a greater variety of aspects. His soul is expanded, his judgment strengthened, and all his powers assailed and improved.’

The force of the language is not more powerful than the justness of the opinion; and the few examples within the sphere of our own knowledge would add a considerable weight to it. The late lord Kaims lived to a great age, and preserved his faculties in uncommon vigour, chiefly by the variety of his studies. But, while this method is recommended, we ought to add some warning against its abuse. A sound judgment and clear intellects, an accurate comprehension, with steady, deep reflection, can alone preserve the stream calm and pellucid, can only present the images free from distortion or confusion. There are not many minds who can soar beyond one science; but, when by a natural or acquired strength, the additional load can be borne with ease, the greatest advantages are derived from the more extended view.

We must step out of our path, to pursue Dr. Barnes in his subsequent researches.

XXIII. On the Influence of the Imagination and the Passions upon the Understanding. By Thomas Barnes, D. D.—What he thinks of the *acquisitions*, he transfers to the *powers* of the mind, and supposes that the vigour of the imagination will give a correspondent vigour to the judgment. To establish an opinion so very different from what is usually maintained, Dr. Barnes changes the appearance of the question, and, instead of ranking the understanding, passions, or will, among the distinct powers, he supposes that they are only different modes of action, different exertions of one uncompounded mind.

mind. To examine this paper with the accuracy which it deserves, would lead us very far; we can only observe, that the author has rescued 'imagination' from the contempt with which it has been always treated: he has clearly shewn, that it is a faculty or exertion of the mind, highly serviceable in the investigation of truth; and, instead of that volatile power, which only adorns the pages of the poet, the encomiums of the lover, and the wanderings of the lunatic, even philosophy, and the more severe, abstracted science of mathematics, are not only assisted, but, in some measure, supported by it. We confess, however, but we do it with diffidence, that we do not think Dr. Barnes has established his principal position.

VII. Remarks on the different Success with Respect to Health, of some Attempts to pass the Winter in high northern Latitudes. By John Aikin, M. D.—Those who succeeded best in these attempts, fed on fresh animal food, without salt, drank only water, and used as much exercise as possible.

VIII. On the Pleasure which the Mind receives from the Exercise of its Faculties; and that of Taste in particular. By Charles de Polier, Esq.—This is a most elegant essay, without any particular object that we are capable of presenting in a short compass. It leads us deeply to regret the premature loss of this amiable and elegant man, whose life, in a subsequent article, is related by Dr. Percival.

IX. On Oeconomical Registers. By Mr. J. Wimpey.

X. On the Pleasure which the Mind, in many Cases, receives from contemplating Scenes of Distress. By Thomas Barnes, D. D.

XI. Observations on Blindness, and on the Employment of the other Senses to supply the Loss of Sight. By Mr. George Bew.—We can make few observations on these articles, because they afford nothing very particularly interesting. Dr. Barnes' paper is, as usual, elegant. Mr. Bew's contains a pretty correct character of Dr. Moyses; but we think he has imperfectly understood some parts of it. There is an instance of a remarkable employment in which a blind man is engaged, and in which he is said to excel, that of a surveyor of roads.

In the essay on blindness, Mr. Bew speaks of the blind feeling impressions in dreaming, in some degree similar to the visible appearance of bodies.

'A blind gentleman, with whom I have lately conversed, clearly proves to me, that he is conscious of the figure, though he cannot distinguish the varieties of the human countenance: and from the confused efforts he makes to explain himself, it may be perceived, that he feels himself alarmed with new sensations, that bear a strong relation to our ideas of light and

colour; but which he finds it impossible to describe, because he cannot fix on any comparative idea whereby to explain himself. These dreams my intelligent friend informs me, are always painful, and, as may naturally be expected, the impressions are extremely transient and unsatisfactory.

We have quoted this instance, though we own that, in our opinion, it is very trifling, merely to give some attention to an argument for sentiments very different from those which we have often expressed. We can only allow any force to it, if a man, born blind, shall, after being restored to sight, recognize, by the eye, objects formerly, in his darker state, presented in dreams to his mind.

XII. On Saltpetre. By James Massey, Esq.—This essay on making saltpetre is very useful. In this country we find it is very necessary to supply the alkali. In India, it is certainly otherwise; but, even in our disadvantageous situation, nitre may probably be rendered at a cheaper rate than that at which we now receive it.

XIII. An Attempt to shew, that a Taste for the Beauties of Nature and the Fine Arts, has no Influence favourable to Morals. By the Rev. Samuel Hall, A. M.

XIV. Observations on the Use of Acids in bleaching of Linen. By Alexander Eason, M. D.

XV. Conjectural Remarks on the Symbols or Characters, employed by Astronomers to represent the several Planets, and by Chemists to express the several Metals. By Martin Wall, M. D.

XVI. Remarks on the Knowledge of the Ancients. By William Falconer, M. D. F. R. S.

XVII. An Inquiry concerning the Influence of the Scenery of a Country on the Manners of its Inhabitants. By William Falconer, M. D. F. R. S.

XVIII. A Tribute to the Memory of Charles de Polier, Esq. By Thomas Percival, M. D.

XIX. Thoughts on the Style and Taste of Gardening among the Ancients. By William Falconer, M. D. F. R. S.

XX. On the Regeneration of Animal Substances. By Charles White, Esq. F. R. S.

XXI. On the Diversions of Hunting, Shooting, Fishing, &c. considered as compatible with Humanity.

XXII. Observations on Longevity. By Anthony Fothergill, M. D. F. R. S.

XXIV. On the Ascent of Vapour. By Alexander Eason, M. D.

XXV. On the comparative Merit of the Ancients and the Moderns with Respect to the imitative Arts. By Mr. Thomas Kerstnow,

XXVI. On

XXVI. On the Impropriety of allowing a Bounty to encourage the Exportation of Corn, &c. By Mr. Joseph Wimpey.

XXVII. On the Natural History of the Cow, so far as it relates to its giving Milk; particularly for the Use of Man. By Charles White, Esq. F. R. S.

We cannot enlarge on these articles: indeed many of them are very insignificant. From this censure we must except Mr. Wimpey's paper on the impropriety of bounties, and Dr. Falconer's, to which we have already paid our tribute of acknowledgment. Mr. White's facts, on the regeneration of animal substances, are apparently curious; but truth and fiction are so intimately blended in these tales, so much must be detracted and placed to the account of ignorance, inattention, or a fondness for the marvellous, that we know not where to rest. It was a proper paper to introduce conversation, but the most improper for publication. We ought also to remark, that Mr. Kershaw's knowledge seems to be embellished by the most engaging modesty; and that, in a more ample field, we should expect much information from his labours.

XXVIII. On the Natural History and Origin of Magnesian Earth, particularly as connected with *those* of Sea Salt, and of Nitre; with Observations on some of the Chemical Properties of that Earth, which have been, hitherto, either unknown or undetermined. By Thomas Henry, F. R. S.—This essay is the most clear and scientific of the whole collection; and, of course, it deserves the greatest share of our attention. Mr. Henry thinks that the sea was originally created salt, but that this salt is constantly renewed, since we know it is dispersed by storms in spray, or more imperceptibly carried off by evaporation. As nitre is supplied from putrid vegetables by the air, so sea salt may be produced by the same causes in the sea. So far is conjecture; but it is very probable, and strongly supported by analogy, and particularly by a fact mentioned in the Memoirs of the Royal Academy, that sea salt is always found in the nitre beds. When Mr. Henry proceeds, we fear that his foundations are not equally established. With the sea salt, he observes, there is also an earthy salt produced, viz. the bitter purging salt, with a basis of magnesia, which seems to arise from the same principles. The opinion is not new: we meet with hints of this kind in many of the modern French chemists; though, in no work, has it been drawn out to any extent. We find magnesia where we meet with equivocal traces of water, and none of any vegetating or animated matter. The primitive rock, the granite, is composed of quartz, schoerl, feldt-spath, and mica. The composition has been long since ascertained by Ferber, Pallas, and

other naturalists: we need not tell Mr. Henry, that magnesia is in large proportions, both in the schoerl and mica. It is observed by Faujas de St. Fond, and indeed the observation is so near the surface, as to require little more than inspection, that this ought not to be called a primitive rock, since each of its component parts rather deserve that title. But we may even go farther. We have distinctly seen pieces of granite of a very different kind from the mass of granite in which it is inclosed; and it forms a compound of as close a texture as the different parts of which the stone is originally composed; so that it seems as if granite had originally existed previous to the shock which, by a sudden convulsion, joined particles of so opposite a quality. Magnesia then originally existed anterior to animation, or, at least, was placed beyond the reach of animated beings; for, in these primæval stones, we meet neither with their impressions or exuviae. We cannot penetrate the obscurity of high antiquity, to explain the sudden formation of this stone. It most probably was not effected by fire: its appearance is that of a solution, rapidly crystallized; an operation so sudden and powerful, as to preclude any regular figures, and prevent the connection of any water. The appearance and specific gravity of the stone are sufficient proofs of this position; but we are again involved in difficulties. If it arose originally from water, the quantity in which it was dissolved must be immense; and the abstraction of it very rapid: at the same time it is surprising, that animals and vegetables which, in our minds, are always connected with water, should not have been left behind. But, whatever becomes of these difficulties, we are at least certain of the existence of magnesia, independent of the causes to which Mr. Henry has attributed it.

The paper concludes with some remarks on the chemical qualities of magnesia. One passage seems to clear a difficulty which we felt, during the dispute on this subject, between our author and Dr. Glas. It seems at a certain period of the calcination, magnesia sometimes seems sharp and pungent to the taste, without imparting any of these qualities to water. If we mistake not, at that time, this circumstance was attributed to the magnesia being contaminated with calcareous earth. Magnesia, if perfectly pure, is, we find, unchangeable by fire, soluble in diluted acids, and more so when the calcination has been long continued than when it is imperfect.

The other volume we shall consider at a future opportunity.

Ob-

Observations on a late Publication, intituled, Thoughts on Executive Justice: to which is added, a Letter containing Remarks on the same Work. Small 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell.

IF the 'earnestness of the style' in which the *Thoughts* were delivered, had 'gained the writer some converts,' there certainly were not wanting arguments whose force had a similar effect; and, though many attacks had been made on the *Thoughts*, even from the bench, yet they have hitherto been vaguely declamatory, or affectedly benevolent. It certainly was not the writer's aim, in publishing that work, to become the advocate of cruelty; nor when we, hurried along by the style and the reasoning, perhaps, with a little too much rapidity, thought the work deserved attention, was there the slightest suspicion of the measure becoming ultimately sanguinary. As it was not left to our decision, it was enough for us to remark, that the work was of too much consequence to be disregarded or despised; we are happy to find the present observer of the same opinion, and that it has shared the attention of those well qualified to elucidate this interesting subject*. The observations before us are written with great force, much knowledge of the subject, and considerable elegance. The author is an antagonist, with whom to contend is fame; and we have the greatest expectations of very salutary effects, from the liberal enquiry which we have reason to believe will follow.

We must leave the intentions of every author to him who only knows the heart, and shall commence our observations on the jarring opinions of the two combatants, with the remarks and observations on the Penal Laws. The first author thinks them excellent; his antagonist, that they are a mass of inconsistent laws; 'which are severe where they should be mild; and mild where they should be severe; and which have, for the most part, been the fruits of no regular design, but of sudden and angry fits of capricious legislators.' If the want of a regular design were an objection, we should find a similar one even against the British constitution, which is certainly composed of 'jarring and inconsistent materials,' from the fruits of sudden fits of encroaching parties. Yet, together, it is the 'world's great wonder,' kept entire by the concurring veneration of every party, untouched even by jarring factions, or, if touched, the unhallowed hand is immediately withdrawn. Somewhat of our author's accusation may be allowed against the penal

* The '*Thoughts on Executive Justice*' were reviewed in our fifty-ninth volume, page 319; and the Appendix to it, in page 478. An Answer to it was reviewed in the sixtieth volume, page 160.

laws,

laws, in their present state; but it is carried too far. If plough-tackle in the field, or cloth in the tenters, have intrinsically a certain worth; yet they should be fenced by penalties, in a much greater proportion to their worth, because the one cannot be easily removed, and the other is prepared for the packer by the morning air. The same reasoning will apply to the horse and the ox; nor was the reply of the judge, on this account, improper: 'Friend,' says he, 'you are not hanged for stealing this horse, but that horses may not be stolen.' Some other reasons ought to be alledged to lessen the mass of absurdity, which the Observer seems to have detected in our penal laws; yet he has shown sufficient intricacy to require explanation, and sufficient injustice to be corrected.

In his attempts to combat the author of the *Thoughts* on other grounds, he is more successful. What he says on the subject of alleviating punishment, deserves attention: if there are but few similar instances, they will certainly lessen the force of his antagonist's objections.

* The writer has taken pains to collect together a great variety of instances of villains having abused the royal mercy; and he does not seem to have found one solitary instance of a man's having been reclaimed by pardon, and saved from an ignominious death to become a useful and worthy member of society. Nor would it be very surprising if he knew of no such instance; because, in the history of the vulgar, as well as of the great, it is the daring and the profligate who make the most conspicuous figure. The crimes of the highwayman and of the conqueror, of Cæsar and of Cartouche, command the notice of mankind; while no regard is paid to the virtues of the peaceful patriot, or of the industrious mechanic, who never step out of the

"Secretum iter, et falkentis femita vita."

* The reformed thief, who sincerely resolves to atone for his past crimes by his industry, and by the regular performance of all his social duties, from the moment he forms that resolution ceases to attract the public attention. It does not follow, therefore, because the writer has found no such instance, that many do not exist. One has lately appeared, where one would last have sought for it, even at the Old Bailey. In the year 1723, a man was convicted of a robbery, and was condemned to die; but, as there appeared in his case some favourable circumstances, his sentence was mitigated, and he was sent for seven years to work upon the Thames. In last May, however, he was again arraigned at the bar of the court for having been found at large before the term of his punishment had expired, and was again condemned to die. And, what the writer of the *Thoughts* will probably exclaim, can be said in favour of so incorrigible a villain? — The facts proved upon his trial, and which

Which are these: the moment he had escaped from the lighter, he addressed himself to a watchmaker, whom he entreated to teach him his business: the request was granted; and the fugitive applied himself to his new trade with such indefatigable assiduity, that in a few weeks he gained sufficient to support himself; and from that time, till the moment he was taken, he had employed himself in such unremitting labour, that he had not stirred out of his room for eight months together.'

The Observer attacks him also in his other positions. If the punishment *certainly* followed the offence, offences would be less numerous; but, adds our author, we can never attain this *certainly*. Evidence will be sometimes circumstantial, and sometimes deficient: the offender, like the gamester, will continue to play with the odds against him, till he falls into the pit prepared for him. Yet it cannot be denied, if conviction was not alleviated by many circumstances, and if punishment always followed it, the laws would be a *greater* source of terror, and *more* effectual, in their first great object, that of preventing crimes. It would then only remain a question, whether this approximation to security would be adequately compensated by more numerous sufferers; and this question must ultimately revert to the original one. We gain, therefore, nothing by shifting our position: what follows is, however, more pointed and pertinent.

'The system so earnestly recommended has been tried, tried in this very country, and tried without the least success; for, in the cases of forgery, and robbing the mail, the law has been always executed with the utmost severity, that the most unfeeling rigourists could wish, ministers being even afraid to pardon such offenders, on account of the clamours of trading people, governed by sordid passions, and by the rage of interest; and yet those crimes were never more frequent in England than they have been during the last twenty years. From this experience we may, I think, fairly conclude, that the measure, if adopted, could not be efficacious: let us, in the next place, see how far it would be just or legal.'

Much may be alledged in opposition to this argument; for, within the period limited, the situation of the kingdom, in every respect, has led more strongly, has held out a greater temptation to these crimes than in former ages; and it must still remain to be examined, whether the number of culprits has borne an adequate proportion. In our opinion, however, this argument is a very weighty one, and deserves great regard, as it is a partial trial of the suggested plan.

The Observer next examines the authorities of Plato and Cicero, Montesquieu and Beccaria, which were adduced in the Thoughts. From the passages referred to, it is pretty clear,

clear, when they speak of the strict execution, it is of mild and gentle laws. The juries, our author thinks, would also defeat the intention of the judge, if every convict were certainly punished; for conviction would not be so frequent, and the jurymen would 'quiet their consciences on a perjury, which was the means of preventing murder.' Those who have attended the Old Bailey, or even perused a sessions paper, will readily agree with him: it is not easy, in many cases, to guess at the foundation of a verdict, except it be to alleviate the punishment; and this tenderness forms no part of the oath of a juror.

We have mentioned the principal circumstances in which these authors differ. The necessity of publishing the design, by which every convict is necessarily and unavoidably punished, we have formerly insisted on; and, with respect to the privilege of reprieving, exercised by the judges, their opinions are not very different. It is properly observed, in the work before us, that, if the king has the power of pardoning, a reprieve is generally necessary for his exerting that power.

Having stated the arguments, with those observations which, after mature reflection, have occurred to us; having candidly and dispassionately placed the dispute on what seems its proper basis, we ought not to decide. Each author concludes, that a remedy is wanting; and neither will probably approve of the means suggested by the other. We have enlarged on the subject, if possible, to render it of importance; to draw the attention of others not yet engaged in its consideration, and to procure additional security for the quiet, the industrious, or the helpless part of mankind. The mischief is alarming; it is at our own doors, and requires a speedy and effectual remedy. We fully agree with our author, in first recommending a thorough and complete revision of our penal laws. In other respects, we suspect his plans are not sufficiently efficacious to crush the evil.—We have already hinted, that robbery is become a system: it is supported and carried on by numerous subordinate agents, who by concealments, advice, information, and other means, concur, unsuspected, in the most villainous designs. We fear, that the most vigorous and violent measures will alone succeed; but we shall extract some judicious remarks from our author: if they will not remove the nuisance, they may lessen it.

'The means of removing this evil are plain and obvious—to supply the poor with employment; to prevent them from plunging into drunkenness, gaming and idleness, which are the forerunners of every other vice; and, above all, to suppress those

those disorderly houses and seminaries of thieves, which are notorious to all the officers of the police, but which it is the interest of all of them should continue, and should thrive. But to effect all this, one of two things is absolutely necessary; either gentlemen of character, of property, and of education, must in every part of the kingdom undertake the very important duties of justices of the peace (for by such alone can those duties be properly discharged) or some different system of police from that which now prevails must be established.

‘To suppose that they, who make the office of justice of the peace a lucrative employment, will ever execute that office properly, is to suppose, that men engaged in a profitable trade will exert themselves to the utmost to ruin that trade, or to abridge its profits. That a mercenary justice sincerely wishes the reformation of the lower ranks of mankind, is what no one can imagine, but he who is credulous enough to believe, that there are African traders, who in their hearts lament the hardships and cruelties which negro slaves undergo.

‘If indeed persons of the description which I have mentioned cannot be found to act in the commission of the peace, some other system of police must be resorted to. Not, however, a system confined merely to the metropolis, as if it were matter of indifference what vices were suffered to range through every other part of the kingdom; nor one supported only by extraordinary and formidable powers lodged in the hands of new-erected magistrates appointed by the crown; but some general and permanent system, founded upon the principles of our ancient constitution.’

We must now take our leave of the subject till additional information shall induce us to resume it. We must again confess that we have received much information from this little volume; and are only sorry that we cannot join in the praises of the letter annexed, with the warmth of our Observer.

*A Philosophical, Historical, and Moral Essay on Old Maids.
In Three Volumes. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Cadell.*

THIS very respectable sisterhood has at last found a friend, an advocate, a panegyrist; he is sufficiently interested in their favour to examine the various effects which neglect, or extreme delicacy, which disappointed love, or overweening ambition may have produced; while as causes, though apparently opposite, and seemingly inconsistent, they have concurred in promoting a state of joyless celibacy. But he does not leave his subject imperfect: the office which has been long delayed, is now completely executed; and the HISTORIAN OF THE OLD MAIDS examines their situation in the most remote eras, draws each secluded vestal into view, dis-

displays each venerable monastic in the glare of day. Could the retired nun have anticipated the moment, when her calm repose was thus rudely to be disturbed—Could the hermit, whose object was to be concealed from all mortal eyes, have suspected that his retirement would be invaded, and his errors exposed in open day, how acute would have been their feelings, how poignant their terrors! but, on the other hand, could the panegyrist of virginity have supposed, that in the most fashionable circles, and in the most sceptical age, that his rude labours would have been read with admiration, adorned by the most exquisite polish of a language in its highest state of refinement, his heart would have glowed with the unexpected honour; he would have triumphed in reflecting, that he has to live again, even on the verge of oblivion. But we can now only ascertain their feelings by conjecture; so that we must no longer wander in these pleasing but visionary shades, where the imagination embodies every rising fancy, and gives to airy nothings the attendant frailties of humanity.

Our author, in his enquiry, has taken a most extensive circuit, and has exhausted the philosophy, the history, and the morality of old maids. Perhaps he would have pleased us more, if he had pleased us less; but as this is, we believe, the only modern work on the subject, as it is a system, and, like all other systems, must be the standard to which every thing of the kind is to be referred, we ought not to complain of its bulk: if the author had been a German, three huge folios might have been the result of his enquiries. When we say, that this is the only modern work, we ought to have mentioned a collection of periodical essays, under the title of the Old Maid, in which there are some attempts,

‘to unfold

The sage and serious doctrine of virginity.’

But the light occasional effusions of this author are not to be compared with the systematical enquiries of our present historian.

The essay is dedicated to Mrs. Carter, who, like Diana, is revered in a three-fold character, as poet, philosopher, and old maid. The Introduction follows, in which the historian of the Old Maids (we beg for particular reasons to be allowed to hail him with this title) gives a detail of his plan, in such a concise manner that we shall beg leave to transcribe it.

‘I devote myself, with a new species of Quixotism, to the service of ancient virginity. It is my intention, in the follow-
ing

ing work, to redress all the wrongs of the autumnal maiden, and to place her, if possible, in a state of honour, content, and comfort.—I shall begin with a few remarks on the extreme cruelty and injustice of the sarcastic contempt so frequently lavished on old maids in general, and of the tendency which such treatment has to afflict, exasperate, and debase the character. I shall proceed to point out the particular failings to which the situation is peculiarly exposed; and afterwards dwell on the better qualities which it is calculated to promote. I shall then take a general survey of the various neglect and honour, which appears to have been the lot of old maids in different ages of the world; and, examining the present condition of the sisterhood, I shall conclude with topics of consolation and advice."

Let us enquire a little farther into the cause of this knight-errantry: we shall give it in our author's own words, as a pleasing specimen of his manner.

"It was my good fortune to be present at an entertaining conversation between a lively married lady, not insensible to the burthen of a numerous family, whom I shall call Euphrasia, and a very amiable, but rather elderly virgin, whom I shall distinguish by the name of Maranthe. After they had discussed, with much vivacity and good-humour, the different comforts and troubles of their respective conditions; "If you old maids," said Euphrasia, "had but a just sense of all your advantages, you would be the most fortunate of human creatures."—"No, indeed," replied the judicious and warm-hearted Maranthe, "the wife, I confess, has her heavy load of anxieties, but the old maid is like a blasted tree in the middle of a wide common."—The force of this simile, and the pathetic tone with which it was uttered, by a woman of great sensibility, with a very cultivated mind, made a deep impression both on my imagination and my heart. The idea has led me, in my solitary and thoughtful hours, to meditate on the situation of the old maid; and I have said to myself, in such philosophical reveries, what can I do for this blasted tree? I cannot, indeed, transplant, and cause it to blossom; but I will at least endeavour to raise a little fence around it, which may take off, in some measure, from its neglected appearance, and not suffer the wild asses, who wander near it, to kick and wound it, as they so frequently do, in the wanton gambols of their awkward vivacity."

After fixing the period of old maidism, which he does with some ambiguity, and seeming reluctance, at about the age of forty, when, if not actually within the gates, he thinks each virgin on the threshold, he considers the situation and treatment of old maids. In his progress, he enlarges on the curiosity, credulity, affectation, envy, and ill-nature, of old maids; but at the same time does ample justice to their ingenuity,

genuity, patience, and charity. Why not also to their steadiness, their tenderness, and good-humour? Can we suspect our author, after all his professions, to be an enemy in disguise? Of this imputation we must acquit him; for these qualities, though not professedly enlarged on, frequently occur in different parts of his work: we could have wished, however, that he had been more explicit on the subject, if it were only to have given a better appearance to his Table of Contents, the extent of the studies of many modern readers.

On all these different qualities he sometimes expatiates philosophically, and explains the causes with precision. He sometimes illustrates with pleasing and apposite stories, and always entertains by the judgment of his remarks, and the elegance of his language. The most interesting parts of this volume are the little histories, by which the different characters are illustrated. They are told with a happy discrimination of circumstances, and, in the most lively, entertaining manner. We are sorry that their length prevents us from extracting any of them; but we were particularly pleased with the disappointments of Mrs. Winifred Wormwood, and the perplexities of miss Harriet Aspin. We shall select the following, not as the best, but as the shortest description of a peculiar kind of old maids, viz. the credulous.

‘The credulous old Maid of the present time is one, who, instead of seeing apparitions in the vacancy of air, sees a lover in every man by whom she is civilly accosted, and, instead of hearing death-watches, hears a hint at least, if not an offer of marriage, in every common compliment that is casually addressed to her. I have known some unfortunate ladies reduced to a deplorable condition by a very serious misconstruction of the most trivial and unmeaning civilities.

‘Let me remark, however, that the credulous old maiden is seldom much affected by the loss of one imaginary lover; she is, generally speaking, a most active architect, supremely skilled in the ingenious and happy art of building castles in the air; and, as fast as one fabric of amorous illusion is demolished, she erects another in its place. Her life is a scene of perpetual and ever-varying hope; and, as hope is one of the most lively passions, her temper is naturally gay. Her head may be compared with one of those raree-show boxes, which are filled with splendid and successive pictures of one magnificent object: at the first peep you may discern the temple of Hymen; the structure presently vanishes, but disappears only to make room for a more captivating view, either of the temple itself, or of some delightful avenue, which is terminated by the same noble edifice. The credulous old maid has a memory completely stored with histories of love at first sight; she can recollect a thousand
in-

instances in real life, as well as romance, of ladies who have made the most sudden and fortunate conquests, by the simple and natural circumstance of looking out of window, and she; therefore, devotes herself, with particular assiduity, to this favourite amusement. I know a sprightly ancient virgin of this description, who, as constantly as my lord mayor's day returns, continues to plant herself in some conspicuous window of the city, and, as the festive procession advances in her sight, she is animated with the hope of wounding an alderman or a sheriff: she looks, indeed on these occasions, as if she was thoroughly convinced, that the incessant fire of her eyes did prodigious execution upon the passing croud; yet, I believe, if we except her intention, she is as perfectly innocent of metaphorical manslaughter, as the honest man in armour, who forms a part of the cavalcade, is innocent of blood. Fruitless as the experiment has hitherto proved, she is firmly persuaded, that her destiny has ordained her to captivate some unknown lover, by the graceful action of leaning from a window; and, I am credibly informed; that she passed a great part of several nights in that position, at the time of those outrageous riots, which threatened to lay the metropolis in ashes. At the moment when other females of her neighbourhood had started from their beds, under the terrific ideas of murder and conflagration, this happy fair one was observed to loiter in the most easy attitude, at her open sash, with the enlivening hope of striking some gallant hero, at the head of those military parties who then paraded the streets. Her night dress was adjusted with peculiar elegance for this purpose, and she has ever since flattered herself with the assurance of having made a very deep impression on the heart of a certain captain of the guards, who kissed his hand to her at the time, and, according to her supposition, has only been prevented from a farther explanation of his love by the unfortunate circumstance of his having a proud and intractable old peer for his father.'

He then examines the situation of old maids, in ancient history. In the antediluvian world, his researches are useless, and he seems to think that this period did not produce such a precious rarity. But when his enquiries were finished, he received a transcript from the fragments of Enoch, a work which he had rashly believed apocryphal,—those very fragments quoted by some learned fathers, and superstitious rabbies, to prove, that the command of 'increase and multiply,' was not so generally received, or so rigorously followed, as had been supposed. The fragments are translated; but we have many reasons to believe, that they are pretended translations only: we must confess, however, that the design is ingenious, and the execution happy. The form, and the internal evidence of those ancient writings, are in general, very well preserved. Our author then examines into the number of old maids among the Jews, Egyptians, Babylonians,

nians, Phœnicians, Armenians, Lydians, Persians, Scythians, and Romans, before the Christian æra. We are surprised, we ought not to say sorry, to find the prospect so dreary; even among the Amazons, our historian finds only one, whom he can name, viz. Penthesilea, who is celebrated by Quintus Calaber. He has dared, rash and impious as he is, to sully the characters of the Vestals, by the poisonous breath of his slander, and, perhaps, not wholly without reason. The following passage on this subject, is translated from Prudentius: we insert it as a specimen of the ease and elegance of the poetical versions of some ancient authors.

Now let me search into the Vestal's fame!
 To modesty's bright crown what seals her claim?
 The little slaves in childhood are immur'd,
 Before the judgment of the mind matur'd
 Can grow of virgin fame devoutly fond,
 And spurn the weight of the connubial bond.
 On joyless altars, which her heart must hate,
 The captive virgin is condemn'd to wait;
 Not scorning pleasure, but from bliss confin'd,
 Untouch'd her body, not untouch'd her mind:
 Restless the bed, on which unlov'd she lies,
 And for the loss of bridal rapture sighs:
 Hope fans this fire: for her the torch may flare,
 And nuptial fillets bind her hoary hair;
 Since, when thro' stated years her vows are paid,
 Vesta rejects the antiquated maid:
 While fit for nuptial joys, no nuptial kiss
 Enrich'd her bosom with a mother's bliss:
 A veteran Vestal, now her priesthood ends,
 She quits the altar, on which youth attends,
 To Hymen's rites, a wrinkled bride! she's led,
 And learns to wanton in an icy bed.'

If this author has sometimes detracted from the credit of ancient ladies, at others he rescues some unknown virgin from oblivion, who lives again to fame, in less mortal pages than those in which she was formerly consecrated. We have so great a regard for the sisterhood, that we look on the rescued fair one as a new discovered treasure, which envy or some lesser passion had hid from us: though we now abound in these riches, such may be the mutability of fortune, that another historian, of some future period, may look in vain for such respectable characters.

After the Christian era, the venerable sisters were more numerous. Celibacy was connected with religion, and the most interesting earthly ties were sacrificed to the expected happiness of a future state. The historian is very full on this part of his subject, full almost to disgust, and leads us to wish that he had been contented with drawing the outline only,
 instead

instead of filling up the picture with such glaring colours. If some parts of it had been more in shade, the cheek of innocence might have been spared a blush. He pursues his subject from the writings of Tertullian, St. Cyprian, Methodius, St. Athanasius, St. Basil, St. Gregory Nazianzen, and of Nyssa, St. Ambrose, St. Chrysostom, and St. Jerom, till he strikes the history with the decline and fall of monastic virginity. We conclude, that his references are exact, but confess that we have not followed him through these mazes of dulness, and sometimes of affectation: perhaps, however, no severer satire could have been written against some of his authorities, than a quotation of their own words. It must be owned, that these pages, though not very generally entertaining, are yet replete with instruction, as a history of manners, and of the human heart; of the triumph of fraud and cunning over a weak credulity, or honest bigotry.

We next arrive at a more pleasing picture of some monastic old maids, distinguished by literary talents. This chapter is very entertaining, and concludes with a curious account of a literary Mexican lady, descended from Spanish parents. He next pays his tribute to the Peruvian virgins of the sun, and to the old maids who were so highly revered by our northern ancestors. We need not enlarge on this last subject: the respect in which chastity was held by the Goths, is sufficiently known, and it was continued in the institutions of chivalry, and rendered sacred by the practice of its professors.

The historian then returns to his own country, and examines the respect with which old maids were treated by the poets of this nation. He descends to minuter matters, and tells us, that the hallowed touch of virginity was a cure for many diseases; but, as if to guard us against disappointment in the experiment, he relates the many ways, by which the existence of this precious privilege is ascertained. The miscellaneous chapter concludes with an attempt to explain the common proverb of old maids being doomed 'to lead apes in hell,' which is at last left in doubtful obscurity.

As we have professed ourselves friends of the sisterhood, we would suggest a more favourable interpretation of the proverb than has been usually given. In Shakespeare it occurs in a different sense; and the apes are said to be led *into* hell. It is not improbable, therefore, that it may have been meant as a compliment, and implied that purity, like theirs, may be trusted without danger, even to the threshold, and that to them only could be assigned such an office with safety.

A very delicate question is next discussed, with great pleasantry and address, 'Whether a widow, or an old maid be most eligible for a wife;'—but the speech in favour of the old

maid is preserved at length: a little ironical archness is, however, too conspicuous; and the ancient virgin will, probably, look at it with no little distrust, respecting the intentions of the author.

The last volume concludes with a dream, and a sermon. The author supposes that he is appointed pastor to a secluded society of the sisterhood. He rejoices in the lot, and introduces the sermon, which, in his sleeping state, he delivered to this venerable audience. But,

It is not Homer nods, but *we* that dream.

We may, indeed, alledge, that few waking discourses are more strong, animated, and pathetic. This sermon will not fail, if compared with the most forcible and excellent, with the most tender and affecting scenes which the pen of Sterne ever traced. The text relates to Jephtha's daughter, who 'went with her companions, and bewailed her virginity.' We shall select the following passage, which is, in our opinion, highly interesting and pathetic.

'Shall we say to this solitary virgin, *'bewail not your condition; for, if you are a good Christian, you should be happy?'* no! we will not address her thus; and shame on those ill-instructed ministers of Christ, who insult the wretched with such abrupt and unfeeling admonition! it is our duty to penetrate, with insinuating tenderness, into the painful recesses of a suffering spirit. Let us gently search into the natural train of thought, which depresses the unfortunate virgin, and pursue that line of consolation, which the present turn of her own mind may effectually suggest!—By what is she depressed? by the contrast, which memory presents to her, between the gay festivity of her early days, and the neglect and solitude to which she is now reduced; by the comparison, which imagination suggests to her, between her own desolate condition, and the different destiny of those female companions of her youth, who were so fortunate as to marry. Let us follow this clue, and it may enable us to lead the dejected sufferer from the labyrinth of perplexed and gloomy thoughts into light and peace! Let us first indulge and humour the melancholy of her spirit! let us allow the seeming severity of her lot! let us say to her, *'you have, indeed, been unjustly overlooked by men, who have pitched upon companions less attractive, and have shared their wealth and splendour with partners far less deserving: but, before you estimate their supposed felicity, examine the real state of those associates of your youth, whom marriage has placed in a condition so different from your own! let us try the first.—She is a woman of rank, of opulence, of gaiety; but her innocence was undermined by the supposed constituents of her visionary happiness; and your heart is too pure to envy even pleasures debased by infamy or loaded with remorse.'*

'Let us proceed to a second.—Behold a woman whom nature and education has rendered a lovely compound of vivacity and virtue! she was wedded to the man of her choice,
with

with the sanction of her delighted parents. The figure, the reputation, and the fortune of her husband, made her the envy of all her fair single friends: but alas! could they have read her destiny, she would have excited only compassion; for she soon found, that the pleasing manners, the enchanting talents, and the bright semblance of integrity, in the man whom she fondly thought all perfection, covered a mind corrupted by licentious pleasure, and a heart that could only counterfeit, for a very short period, all the generous characteristics of genuine love. His passion was extinguished by a few weeks possession; and she then experienced, in return for real and anxious affection, mortifying neglect, contemptuous sarcasm, and perpetual infidelity. His vices soon produced their natural effect, the ruin of his fortune, his temper, and his health. Haunted by every painful recollection, he now vainly tries to drown, in deeper intemperance, all ideas of his misery; while the innocent and still lovely victim of his various crimes, surrounded by indigent and deserted children, looks up to those, her former companions, who have remained unmarried, as the most enviable of human beings.

* But to let us pass on to a third, and a much happier example of married life.—Here, indeed, as you truly observe, here we find every circumstance of character and condition, that is justly entitled to the name of fortunate. In this person we may behold the beloved wife of an affectionate and a sensible husband; the healthy and opulent mother of a numerous and lovely offspring. She has a heart and spirit to relish happiness, and she is surrounded by every thing that is likely to give and to increase it. Her condition is, in truth, opposite to that of the elderly, indigent, and solitary maiden.—But let us take a nearer view of this fortunate personage! let us visit the mansion of felicity!—where is the gaiety that should surround it? good Heavens! what evil has befallen it?—all is disorder and distress.—misfortune has happened to one of the young and favourite branches of this flourishing house.—it is the cry of the distracted mother over her darling, torn from her by a calamitous death.—let us retire! for her we cannot comfort!—her grief can be alleviated only by that Almighty power, who has permitted it to be inflicted. But we have received our lesson in the piercing sound of her distress. A single shriek of the mother, on the expiration of her child, ought to drown for ever all the petty murmuring of maidenly discontent.

On the whole, we have seldom seen such varied scenes of entertainment, in any one work: let no one exclaim against the ancient virgins, as gloomy, sour, and unsocial; for if he should ever feel in their society an effect benumbing as that of the torpedo, and gloomy as that occasioned by the interior aspect of the cave of Trophonius, let him turn to their historian and panegyrist, and he will be again restored to mirth, cheerfulness, and society.

Animadversiones Philologicae in nonnulla Corani Loca. Accedunt Illustrationes in V. T. ex Arabismo, necnon Persismo depromptae. Pro Specimine edidit R. Antonius Vieyra, LL. B. ac L. L. Hisp. et Ital. P. Reg. in Col. S. S. et Ind. Trin. Dublin. 4to. 11. 1s. in Boards. Robinson.

SINCE our more intimate connections with the East commenced, the Oriental languages are no longer the ornament of the scholar only, nor are they confined to the illustration of the sacred writings: they direct the politician, by explaining the languages of treaties; they open the treasures of eastern learning, and are essential even in the counting-house. Of these languages, the Arabic is the 'principium & fons;' and, of the Arabic, the Coran is the purest and most copious source. The extent of territory occupied by the followers of Mohammed, the zeal of the Mussulmen, which leads them, on the most common occasions, to employ the phrases of their sacred writings, and the real elegance of the work dictated, in a great degree, by their prophet, render it the most useful book for the direction of the learner's studies, and the fairest object for the criticisms of the commentator. Our author, who wishes to assist a measure in agitation in the university of Dublin, viz. the establishment of a professorship of Oriental languages, has published the 'Animadversiones,' and some Etymological Enquiries, as specimens of the great utility of the eastern, particularly the Arabian and Persian languages. This volume may be considered, in its present state, as imperfect: indeed it is announced only as a specimen; but it displays the acuteness, the judgment, and the erudition of the author. The Oriental languages are now become a necessary part in a system of education, and every institution should comprehend this branch of philology: M. Vieyra seems well qualified to assist so beneficial a design.

The remarks on the Coran are the first in this work; and we shall give some specimens of our author's execution in this branch. We shall select those passages which are more generally interesting, and more easily understood. As the Dedication and Preface belong rather to the etymological part of the work, we shall give some account of them, previous to our observations on it. All the Animadversiones are indeed philological; and, in many respects, etymological.

'COM. 58. *Urbem*. Ex voce hac Arab. quæ est in textu, *kariat* sc. i. e. urbs, pagus, villa, derivantur voces *quirites*, i. e. *civies*, necnon *quirinus*, i. e. *rex urbis*; quamvis utriusque vocis etymon Romanos scriptores latuerit, ut ait cl. Gebelin. Hinc pariter dignoscitur prima pars Punicæ vocis, sc. *Cartag urbem* Car-

Carthaginensem significantis. Verum non una est opinio de altera voce *ag* sc. totam vocem Cartag cum priore *kart* constituyente. Antequam vero opinionem meam proferam sequentia libet in antecessum asserre. In numis Carthaginensibus videre est *equi caput* generosæ indolis, egregie insculptum, et juxta *Palma* arbor est, cum dactylis in ramis. Cæterum hoc equi caput in numis Carthaginensibus insculptum videtur in memoriam illius, quod e terra eruerant, cum prima urbis fundamenta jacerent; idque postea in omen verfum. Justinus ex Trogo, l. xviii. ait: *Ibi quoque caput equi repertum, bellicosum fortemque populum significans, urbi auspiciatam sedem dedit.* Hinc Virgil, l. Æn.

“Locus in urbe fuit media, lætissimus umbra,
Quo primum jactati undis, et turbine pæni
Effodere loco signum, quod regia Juno
Monstrarat, caput acris equi.” . . .

Cum Virgilio concinit Sil. Ital. l. 1.

“Ostentant caput effossa tellure repertum
Bellatoris equi, atque omen clamore salutant.”

Palma vero indicare videtur regionem, e qua profecti venerant, Phœniciam nempe, palmis abundantem. Puto igitur vocem *Cart-ag* compositam esse ex *Ar. Kariat* et *ag*, quarum prima significat *urbem*, secunda vero *equum*. Igitur ex capite equi inventi in illo loco nomen desumpsit urbs Carthaginensis; quemadmodum ex *aurifodinis* nomen accepit *Fessa*, seu *Fexxa*, quod nomen Arabice aurum significat. Notandum insuper primigeniam vim vocis *ag* quæ *equum* significat, sitam esse in *magnitudine*. Ex hac porro primitiva notione derivantur.

Lat. Equ-us, equ-es, equ-iso, aga-so, &c. &c.

Goth. Ak-ken, equus.

Hibern. Eac. Vid. cl. Vallancey Gram. Hiber. p. 131.

Hisp. Hac-a Asturco. Puerilia sunt quæ de origine hujus

Hisp. vocis assert Aldrete, p. 46.

Lusit. Fac-a. Idem ac Hisp. *baca*.

Angl. Hac-ney Nag.

Ital. Haque-nea, five Chinaea.

Gal. Haque-nee.

Denique ex primigenia notione magnitudinis, quæ inest primitivæ huic voci derivari existimo

Angl. Ox

Germ. Och

Suev. Ok

Pannon. Okon

} Bos.

Et, ni fallor, Angl. huge, ingens.

We shall select another passage, on account of the remarkable affinity between the criticisms on the Coran and the New Testament, in a very similar passage.

‘CAP. vii. COM. 41. *Camelus per foramen acus*. Vertendum potius puto: *rudens per foramen acus*. Arab. vox, quam Marac. vertit, *camelus*, est ambigua, potestque *camelum*, aut *rudentem* significare, pro diversitate vocalium. Nam cum prima phatata, ac secunda giesmata, est *Camelus*; sed cum prima dammata, ac secunda phatata, est *rudens*. Porro ex hac Arab. posteriori voce oriuntur

Hisp. <i>Gumena</i> .	} Rudens.
Ital. <i>Gomena</i> .	
Gall. <i>Gomeine</i> .	

‘De *Rudente* porro hic agi, non vero de *Camelo*, suadet analogia major inter rudentem et filum, quod solet per foramen acus induci. Unde est, quod *Alcamus* explicat hanc vocem hic per *rudentem navis*.

‘Furtum sunt hæc verba, ait Maraccius, ex Matth. xix. Verum meminisse oportebat vocem *camilon* in Evang. Matth. exponi per *crassum rudentem*, quo *navia* utuntur ad jaciendas *anchoras*, apud Theophylactum, Euthym. et Phavorin. Frustra interim suspicatur *Druſius*, eos non scripsisse *Camilon*, sed *Cabylon*, ut Græca vox conveniat cum Belgica *Cabel*. Nam opus non erat græcam vocem cudere, unde Belgica oriretur; cum Hebræi, Arabes, &c. funem nauticum *chebel*, vel *chabal* vocent, ex qua voce primitiva oriuntur

Belg. <i>Cabel</i> .	} Rudens.’
Ang. <i>Cable</i> .	
Hisp. <i>Cable</i> .	
Lusit. <i>Calabre</i> .	

Our learned readers know that the word *καμηλος*, in the twenty-fourth verse of the nineteenth chapter of St. Mathew, has, by some commentators, been read *καμιλος*. Parson Adams’ remark is more generally known. “It is easier for a bell-rope,” which for some reasons, says he, that I am unacquainted with, our translators have rendered “camel,” &c. *Καμιλος* occurs in Aristophanes, and some other authors, where it means a rope; but we know not that *καμηλος* has ever the same signification. The change is, however, very minute, though perhaps unnecessary. In the Arabic it requires the transposition of one vowel, and the change of another.

In many respects, different parts of the Old Testament may, in our author’s opinion, be corrected, from a knowledge of the Arabic and Persian languages. Of this kind the following is a specimen, better adapted to illustrate the connection than the remarks designedly adduced for this purpose.

‘*Sataſas*. Ex Arab. voce quæ est in textu derivatur Persicum vocabulum *Sbitan* Diabolus, qui etiam alia voce Persica, *az-mudê*, sc. indicatur, ex qua fluxit Latina *Asmodæus*, necnon Græca *Asmodaios*, quæ in vers. Job. iii. legitur. Porro de hujus nominis etymologia variæ extant conjecturæ. Quod si, vel
primis

primis labiis, Persica rudimenta attigissent viri cætera præclarissimi, quam facillimeprehendissent vocem *Azmudè* nihil aliud esse, quam partic. pass. verbi *azmuden*, quod est *tentare, instigare*. Unde notio particip. præt. *tentatu, instigatus*, nec non, pro Persicæ linguæ ingenio, *tentans, instigator, tentator*. Quam appellationem apprime diabolo convenire, nemo est qui non videat.

There are many criticisms in this part of the work, which are highly curious, and others of a more trifling kind: we shall only select the following note, which will contribute to explain the origin of a very prevalent custom among ancient nations.

‘*Et cum puella sepulta viva interrogabitur. Zamachsharius ad hæc verba, immanem hunc priscorum Arabum vitium describens, sic loquitur: fama tenet, moris fuisse, ut cum partui vicina esset gravida, fossam effoderet, atque supra eam fossam + KITERETUR. Quod si filiam ederet, in fossam projici, sin filium, tolli solitum fuisse.*

‘Porro promigenia notio Arabici verbi, quod hic redditur Latine per eniti, est, *utrem lacis agitare butyri cogendi ergo; atque hinc metaphorice usurpatur de femina, quæ doloribus correpta et concussa, parturit*. Ita docet Geuharius, additque verbum hocce ejusdem esse potestatis atque indolis cum alio Arab, verbo *zabada* [literæ sunt *ze, be, dal*] quod Hebræum quoque est, et plane ejusdem significationis atque usus, quodque legitur Gen. xxx. 20. neque usquam alibi sese offert. quinimo l. Chaldaica et Syriaca, teste cl. Schult. ne minimum quidem verbi hujus vestigium reliquit. Qui Anglicam S. C. versionem elaborarunt lxx sequuti sunt, ac veluti servum pecus, qua itur, non qua eundum erat, iverunt via. Verterunt igitur præfatum locum Gen. *And Leah said, God hath endued me with a good dowry*. At vestram fidem interpretes! exclamat cl. Schultens, cujus versionem hic apponere libet: *utrem mibi meum optima agitavit Deus agitatione: nunc utique consuescet et habitabit mecum vir meus, quod jam sex ei partu edidi filios: et appellavit eum Zebulon*. Dedita opera, utrem posuit Schultens, cum uterum verecunde designet. Corrigendus itaque cl. Castellus, qui in errorem quoque ab interpretibus conjectus est.’

Then follow the more particular illustrations of the Old Testament, from the Arabic and Persian. These are, however, frequently of little importance; and, in some instances, our author seems to have looked too deep for a very obvious meaning. The testimonies of the learned, in support of the utility of the Oriental languages, next follow.

Five specimens of etymologies are subjoined, viz. those where the Arabic, &c. illustrates Latin, English, Spanish and Portuguese, Italian and French. Etymology is a fascinating science; for it engages the imagination, and then leads
the

the reason captive: the mind, in pursuit of analogies, either fancied or real, seldom stops within its proper limits, but expatiates over every art and science till it finds, or creates, what it pursued. That this censure is not too severe, we feel from frequent experience; for those whom etymology first assisted as a servant, it soon directs as a tyrant. This is the principal cause of its abuse; and it is supported by the many languages derived from a few parent stocks. A late author fancied that he found the Greek language to have been the origin of many English words; others look up to the Saxon and the German, but forget that they are only the offspring, sometimes coeval, of the original northern language, probably the Celtic. Our author has this advantage, that, in his pursuit, he has advanced nearer to the source; for the Arabic and the Persian are less distant from the Celtic than the Greek or the German. He has pursued his enquiries with great diligence, and (shall we say too much?) minuteness. In these situations it is not easy to stop; and an author, fond of his subject, is the last to perceive that he has proceeded too far in the pursuit. But we promised to examine the arguments M. Vieyra has adduced in justification of his design.

Our author first alleges, and with great justice, that, by comparing the elements of the eastern languages with those which we already know, and ascertaining the circumstances in which they agree, we shall, with little labour, attain the knowledge of many words, confessedly the most difficult part of the task. He might, with equal reason, have added, that they will also be more indelibly fixed in our minds, than by the usual transitory methods. But he feels, and acknowledges, the difficulty of the task; and modestly owns, that he may have erred in some of his researches. In his next step, he seems rather to betray his own cause: we require etymologies, he thinks, to detect a word, among the various sounds it may acquire in circulation. We fear this has been a great source of abuse; for the sound often influences the orthography, and we are led by it to an erroneous etymology. The remarks on the influence of climate on the organs of speech, and, from thence, on the pronunciation, quoted from M. Court du Gebelin, are very acute and ingenious, but visionary and erroneous. Milton told us that the cold, in these northern regions, prevented us from opening our mouths to pronounce the *a*, like the Italians; and it has been often repeated by those who never heard a Scotchman, the inhabitant of a climate equally cold, pronounce it. The most finely-spun systems on this subject are destroyed with equal ease. M. Vieyra, however, soon escapes from the contest; and, with

with great policy and address, introduces M. Gebelin, M. de St. Palaye, and M. Salzer, to contend for him. The works of these authors are sufficiently known, and few will want specimens of the ingenuity and refinement of either. They have, indeed, stretched the cord till it has broken under the weight; and, by contending that etymology may be subservient to philosophy, to the history of the human mind, and the progress of manners, they have almost led us to doubt whether it is of any use. A jurymen once remarked, with great shrewdness, after the ingenious counsellor had concluded a very subtle defence, 'He has made what I know to be false so very probable, that I much doubt whether that which he has endeavoured to prove certain has any great foundation.' In short, if etymology is conducted with caution and propriety, it may be still highly serviceable; and, as it is so subject to abuse, the attention must be unremittingly exerted to guard against an intemperate pursuit. In the following passage, though it be just on the whole, we think the author totters on his hobby horse.

'Puto igitur vocem *Celtæ* affinitatem habere cum voce *Getæ*, quo nomine nuncupati fuere Asiatici illi coloni, qui inter *Danubium* et montem *Hemum* sedem delegere; quique postea per totam Europam usque ad promontorium Celticum Hiberniam, que sese, ut mox dixi, diffudere. Nec obstat hujusmodi derivationi littera *l* quae saepe interjici solet, ut in Hisp. voce *forestæ*, Ang. *forest*, quae a primitiva voce *bar*, *far*, &c. derivatur, et in aliis sane multis, ex quibus nonnullas invenies sub voce *cera* Ital.

'Roboratur autem hujusmodi conjectura ex eo quod Plinius Hist. Nat. Liv. liv. C. xi. ait, extitisse, nempe, inter *Danubium* pariter et montem *Hemum* gentes, quae *Gaudæ* appellabantur. Quis autem in hujusmodi appellatione affinitatem non agnoscat vocis *Gotbi* cum voce *Gaudæ*? Mirum igitur esse non debet, si vox *Celtæ* cum voce *Getæ* affinitatem quoque habeat; *Celtæque* tandem et nomen et originem ex *Getis* acceperint.'

If he totters in this explanation, which is, however, well founded, he certainly falls in that which follows.

'Bread, brot Theuton. ab Orient. brout, cibus, alimentum. V. Cast. p. 431, ubi extat v. bré comedit. manducavit, pastu se refecit. Igitur bread [panis] cibus per excellentiam fuit appellatus. Quodsi vocis brout, *mediam lit. nasalaveris*; *dentales cum dentalibus*; *labialesque tandem cum labialibus commutaveris*, oriatur (quid profecto?) Lat. FRANDERE, induens actionem sese lautius reficiendi; quae est etiam significatio Ar. v. brath, sc. epulatus est amplo et lauto convivio. V. Cast. p. 451.'

Of

Of the etymologies, I fear we may say with Martial, in the verse so often employed, ‘*Sunt bona, sunt quædam mediocria sunt mala plura,*’ yet our author has certainly added to the stock; and, from his acquaintance with the Spanish language, which contains many Arabic words; from his knowledge of some other modern languages, as well as the Latin and Greek, he has illustrated many words, whose roots were either unknown, or imperfectly ascertained by conjecture. We ought not to conclude our article without remarking, that we have not often seen modern Latin more clear and elegant, more precise and comprehensive.

Letters concerning the Northern Coast of the County of Antrim.
By the rev. William Hamilton, A. M. Fellow of Trinity-College, Dublin. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Robinson.

SINCE natural enquiries deservedly engage the attention of every traveller, we are pleased to see that the objects of our own neighbourhood are found to have charms sufficient to attract the philosopher and the antiquary. It is remarkable, that the stupendous columns, which form the chief subject of these pleasing and interesting Letters, had been cursorily examined, and carelessly described, till the discovery of the basaltic colonnade in Vivarais had directed the eyes of the philosopher to this subject. The ingenious and philosophic author of this work has, in a great degree, supplied the defects of the English naturalists: we shall examine the substance of his Letters, in their order.

Mr. Hamilton first describes the northern coast of the county of Antrim, and the little island of Raghery, more commonly called, in our maps, Raghlin. He thinks they have been once united; indeed, we have frequently mentioned our opinion, which every succeeding discovery strengthens, that this coast was formerly connected not only with Raghery, but with the other Hebrides, with the isles of Ferroe, and, probably, with Iceland. In this part of the world, the admirers of Plato would find very sufficient foundation for the destruction of the Atlantica. The coast of Ireland, and of Raghery, are composed of limestone, which supports the basaltic columns, and is sometimes depressed by them: in many parts of it the columnar appearance is trifling and imperfect; and, in others, is entirely absent. Commonly the columns are on the western coasts, and pretty generally on the promontories. The description of the manners of the islanders is extremely pleasing: their innocence, their integrity and simplicity, form a picture of the fabulous ages;

and we see, with delight, the human race mutually affixing each other, mutually receiving and conferring happiness. They love their country from affection, rather than reason; since they know little of other situations: the neighbouring main (for so Ireland may be comparatively called) they detest; but they seem to detest its invaders only, for in this part of it, the conquests and the cruelties of the Scots and English were most conspicuous.

‘The tedious processes of civil law are little known in Raghery; and indeed the affection which they bear to their landlord, whom they always speak of by the endearing name of master, together with their own simplicity of manners, renders the interference of the civil magistrate very unnecessary. The seizure of a cow or a horse for a few days, to bring the defaulter to a sense of duty; or a copious draught of salt water from the surrounding ocean, in criminal cases, forms a greater part of the sanctions and punishments of the island. If the offender be wicked beyond hope, banishment to Ireland is the dernier resort, and soon frees the community from this pestilential member.

‘In a sequestered island like this, one would expect to find bigotted superstition flourish successfully under the auspices of the Romish church; but the simplicity of the islanders does not foster any uncharitable tenets, and, contrary to one’s expectation, they are neither grossly superstitious, nor rank bigots, but have been known to hold the unchristian doctrines of their late Spanish priest in great contempt—nay in cases of necessity they do not scruple to apply for assistance to the protestant minister. Of their good-will to the established church they give an annual proof which one rarely finds in any other part of Ireland. The minister’s tythe amounts to about 100*l.* per annum, and when the islanders have got in their own harvest, they give the parson a day of their horses and cars, and bring the entire tythe home to his farm yard.’

Between Ballycastle bay and Fairhead, lie the collieries. It has been discovered, by accident, that they were worked in very remote ages, probably before the use of pit-coal was known in England, since a complete mine, with a regular gallery, branching off into different chambers, has been found, though even tradition is silent on the subject. This discovery, and the remains of the Brehon laws, contribute to demonstrate, that there was a time when wood, and perhaps, peat, were scarce in that kingdom. The present bogs had, probably, then no existence: we know, as our author alleges, that the increase of these is rapid, and sometimes irresistible; and it may be added, that instruments of husbandry, and marks of cultivation, have been found below them.

them. In short, we know also from history, that Ireland was a civilized and polished kingdom, when, in many parts of Europe, mankind were still in a savage state, or degenerating into the opposite extreme of a depraved effeminacy. It was the seat of learning, the refuge of the philosopher; and the few sparks of science which remained, after the irruption of the Goths, were there kept alive and cherished: in this office they shared with Jona, and some others of the Western islands. Our author, with all the genuine, with all the amiable warmth of patriotism, expatiates on this subject, and illustrates it from respectable authorities.

Mr. Hamilton next describes the salmon fishery on this coast; as well as some of the old castles, which introduce fragments of the local history: he relates too with feeling, an interesting little modern tale, with which he was accidentally acquainted. He next proceeds to the basaltic columns, and gives the history of the observations and opinions of philosophers on this subject.

Basalt is now so well known, that we need not particularly describe its appearance, or its joints. Mr. Hamilton seems to mention the concave and convex endings too generally: in many instances, they are terminated by a plain surface, and the contiguity of the pillars is not owing to the sum of the contiguous angles being equal to two right angles; but the latter, in every view of theory, must follow necessarily from the former. We shall select his description of the promontory of Pleaskin: it is striking, animated, and picturesque.

‘The summit of Pleaskin is covered with a thin grassy sod, under which lies the natural rock, having generally an uniform hard surface, somewhat cracked and shivered. At the depth of ten or twelve feet from the summit, this rock begins to assume a columnar tendency, and forms a range of massy pillars of basalt, which stand perpendicular to the horizon, presenting, in the sharp face of the promontory, the appearance of a magnificent gallery or colonade, upward of sixty feet in height.

‘This colonade is supported on a solid base of coarse, black, irregular rock, near sixty feet thick, abounding in blebs and air-holes—but though comparatively irregular, it may be evidently observed to affect a peculiar figure, tending in many places to run into regular forms, resembling the shooting of salts and many other substances during a hasty crystallization.

‘Under this great bed of stone stands a second range of pillars, between forty and fifty feet in height, less gross, and more sharply defined than those of the upper story, many of them, on a close view, emulating even the neatness of the columns

in the Giant's Causeway. This lower range is borne on a layer of red ochre stone, which serves as a relief to shew it to great advantage.

‘ These two admirable natural galleries, together with the interjacent mass of irregular rock, form a perpendicular height of one hundred and seventy feet ; from the base of which, the promontory, covered over with rock and grass, slopes down to the sea for the space of two hundred feet more, making in all a mass of near four hundred feet in height, which in beauty and variety of its colouring, in elegance and novelty of arrangement, and in the extraordinary magnitude of its objects, cannot readily be rivalled by any thing of the kind at present known.’

This description is well contrasted with the following.

‘ At the distance of eight miles from hence (as I mentioned before) the promontory of Fairhead raises its lofty summit more than four hundred feet above the sea, forming the eastern termination of Ballycastle bay. It presents to view a vast compact mass of rude columnar stones, the forms of which are extremely gross, many of them being near one hundred and fifty feet in length, and the texture so coarse, as to resemble black schorle stone, rather than the close fine grain of the Giant's Causeway basalt. At the base of these gigantic columns lies a wild waste of natural ruins, of an enormous size, which in the course of successive ages have been tumbled down from their foundation by storms, or some more powerful operations of nature. These massive bodies have sometimes withstood the shock of their fall, and often lie in groups and clumps of pillars, resembling many of the varieties of artificial ruins, and forming a very novel and striking landscape.

‘ A savage wildness characterises this great promontory, at the foot of which the ocean rages with uncommon fury. Scarce a single mark of vegetation has yet crept over the hard rock, to diversify its colouring, but one uniform greyness clothes the scene all around. Upon the whole, it makes a fine contrast with the beautiful capes of Bengore, where the varied brown shades of the pillars, enlivened by the red and green tints of ochre and grass, casts a degree of life and cheerfulness over the different objects.’

The magnificence of these columns, and profusion with which they seem to be scattered in different parts of the globe, fill the mind with the most awful astonishment, impress it with the most lively fear of a power so tremendous, and an affectionate veneration of him who can controul it. That it was the causeway of giants †, and the remains of a bridge,

† In Saxony, a basaltic mountain is also called ‘ Giant's Hill,’ and similar names are given to basaltes in other parts of Germany.

which

which formed the communication between Ireland and the Hebrides, among which Staffa is distinguished for stupendous columns, though inferior to those of Antrim, is a natural and obvious thought. It required no 'knowledge of latitudes and longitudes;' for any two points could surely be connected by a strait line. It was more inexcusable to attribute them to melting lava, cooled in the sea; since the forms of melted matter, thus suddenly cooled, are confused and irregular. The sea, indeed, probably discovered them at this place, by washing away those parts of the earth by which they were surrounded, for they are chiefly found in the most exposed situations; but it has no other connection with them. Mr. de Buffon's opinion, that they are formed by streams of lava pouring over a cliff into the sea, is inconsistent with the appearances, and unworthy of its author. Independent of Ireland and Staffa, basaltic columns are found in Silesia near Luben and Wise; in Marienburg and Weilburg, in Nassau; in Lauterbach, Blisten, and other parts of Hesse and Lusatia; in Bohemia, and on the frontiers of Saxony; on the borders of the Rhine, between Andernach and Bonn; in Languedoc and Auvergne, at Velay and Vivarais. We omit the basaltic appearances in various parts of Italy, because they are in the vicinity of water; and what travellers have related of similar mountains in Spain and Portugal, is scarcely clear enough to engage our attention. The cause of these stupendous appearances is, we fear, still uncertain: there is little doubt but that they are of volcanic origin, though this opinion is opposed by Bergman. He found this stone similar to the Swedish trapp, which had not undergone any calcination; and the specimens sent to him were without pores. The Swedish *trapp* is a schorl, so called from its form, which is generally near that of a trapezium: it is the *horn-stone* of Wallerius, a fanciful and improper term, taken from its want of brittleness. There is, indeed, little doubt of the fact; the Swedish trapp has never been melted, and it is exactly similar to the basalt in its constituent parts. In these respects, Mr. Saussure steps to our assistance; and we learn that this stone really melts into a substance very similar in texture to the basaltes, without any destruction of its parts. In fact, he has imitated the several volcanic productions, by melting the different stones from the more impure granites to the Killas rock. Mr. Hamilton corrects an error, both in Faujas de St. Fond, and Bergman, who have said that basalt is without pores: when examined by a microscope, or very highly polished, they are generally found; but we strongly suspect, that in the lower and denser parts of the columnar
mass,

mass, the pores may have entirely disappeared, though they preserve the distinctions of lavas by becoming more conspicuous as we approach the surface.

Mr. Hamilton thinks, that these columns are formed by crystallization of the lava in cooling; for he supports the opinion which we have endeavoured to rescue from the objections of Bergman, by very forcible arguments. The theory of crystallization is so old, that in some figures of basaltes, the columns are represented as ending in pyramids; but though old, we fear it is not tenable. We know no instance of crystallization, where there are no considerable vacancies. Those metals which seem to crystallize in cooling, expand in the process; basaltes, in some instances, do the same, for the upper surface is convex; but it is very certainly sometimes flat, and in others without perceptible pores. We are told by Saussure, that the particles of which the compactest granite is formed crystallize together; and, by Bergman, that the earth of precious stones is strongly concentered in the same manner; but these operations are little understood, and it is rather an abuse of language to apply the same term to such different processes, which must be effected in very different ways. Faujas de St. Fond objects to this opinion, on account of the planes and the angles being different both in size and number, while, in the strict operation of crystallization, there is a remarkable consistency in both, particularly in the angles, as Romè de l'Isle 'has proudly boasted:' besides prisms, he observes, are never found without being crowned with a pyramid. We ought to select our author's answer to some of the objections to this theory.

* The only apparent specific difference between the basaltic crystals, and those which are produced in our diminutive laboratories, seems to be, in the complete disunion of the pillars, and in the articulated form which they sometimes exhibit. But this will not appear to be a matter of any importance, when we reflect, that in natural operations of the same kind, but differing in magnitude, the same proportions are commonly observed between the different parts: thus, the same ratio, which the diameter of a basaltic pillar bears to the diameter of one of our diminutive crystallizations, will the interval between the pillars of basaltes bear, to the interval between the parts of our crystals; and whoever will take the trouble to calculate this distance, will find it so very small, as easily to admit the different surfaces within the limits of cohesion; so that no separability of our crystals into joints can possibly take place, from their smallness, though they often bear marks which might lead one to imagine them capable of disunion.'

Again,

‘ A second objection arises from hence, that the currents of lava which have issued from *Ætna* and *Vesuvius*, within the memory of man, have never been known to exhibit this regularity of arrangement. It is therefore said that experience does abundantly prove the fallacy of the volcanic hypothesis.

‘ In reply to this we are told, that it is not in the erupted torrents of these volcanoes we are to look for the phenomena of crystallization, but in the interior parts of the mountains themselves, and under the surface of the earth, where the metallic particles of the lava have not been dephlogisticated by the access of fresh air, and where perfect rest, and the most gradual diminution of temperature, have permitted the parts of the melted mass to exert their proper laws of arrangement, so as to assume the form of columnar lava : that we must wait, until these volcanic mountains, which at present burn with so much fury, shall have completed the period of their existence ; until the immense vaults, which now lie within their bowels, no longer able to support the incumbent weight, shall fall in, and disclose to view the wonders of the subterranean world : and then may we expect to behold all the varieties of crystallization, such as must needs take place in these vast laboratories of nature ; then may we hope to see banks and causeways of *basaltes*, and all the bold, and uncommon beauties, which the abrupt promontories of *Antrim* now exhibit.’

These difficulties have contributed to support the more modern opinion that they have assumed this form by retraction, probably, by contraction in cooling. *Faujas de St. Fond* strongly supports this opinion ; and, in the neighbourhood of *Vivara*, found a piece of granite actually divided by the separation of two neighbouring prisms. *Saussure*, who has examined the operations of nature with considerable precision, agrees in the same opinion ; and even endeavours to explain the reason of it. As the work is not common in England, we shall translate the passage. ‘ The tendency to divide, by a kind of retraction, into fragments, more or less regular, terminated by planes, is a property of argillaceous earth ; and this earth communicates the tendency to all the minerals with which it is mixed. We find it *even in basaltes produced, as we have seen, by the fusion of rocks combined with argill, in other words, the horn-stone.*’ We shall not decide on these subjects ; though we confess, if the irregularity is an obstacle to their being formed by crystallization, they are too regular to be produced by contraction in cooling. We need not enlarge on *Bergman*, or *Kirwan*’s opinion ; though both are ingenious, they are not so probable as those we have detailed. We ought, indeed, to apologise for our digression ; but as the

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object

object of a Review is to give an account of the present state of science, and as we have not had an opportunity of enlarging on the subject since the publication of some important works, we hope it may be excused.

Mr. Hamilton proceeds to give an account of the other mineral productions of this country, and he describes them with great clearness and precision: we are sorry, that the length of this article, prevents us from being more particular on the subject. The concluding letter assumes a higher tone, and vindicates

———— ‘ the ways of God to man.’

He speaks to the sceptic in bold energetic language, and with striking arguments and pertinent instances, shows, that the structure of the earth displays consummate wisdom; that its history, as well as the history of its inhabitants, is favourable both to natural and revealed religion.—Such are these interesting Letters, which we cannot recommend more forcibly, than by their having engaged so large a share of our attention, at a busy and a troublesome period of our annual labour.

Dei Cataclismi sofferti dal Nostro Pianeta Saggio Poetico, per servire di Prodromo a un Poema Filosofico e Theologico.

A Poetical Sketch of the Revolutions that have happened in the Natural History of our Planet; intended as a Specimen of a Philosophical and Theological Poem. 8vo. 2s. Crutwell, Bath.

THIS performance, of which we have both the original and the copy, is somewhat extraordinary.—It contains the plan of a philosophical poem, intended to have been written in Italian *blank verse*; ‘ in which the author designed to have compiled a theory of the changes that have taken place in our globe, and to reconcile to our reason, by the assistance of ancient mythology, the various and intricate phænomena which the fossil kingdom presents.’ It was to have been completed in twelve books, and from several passages, as well as from his many other performances, we may perceive that the author; Il Signor Abbate Fortis, was neither defective in learning, nor brilliancy of fancy. He was a native of Venice, and published a Tour into Dalmatia—he is now dead, and of course nothing farther, at least from him, can be expected toward filling up the present very imperfect outlines. It appears indeed never to have been his intention, for he concludes his sketch with informing us, that

‘The design of this poem is not, and probably never will be completed. The author has so far abandoned all thoughts of it, that he has for some time ceased to work at it, and it is more than probable that this situation will compel him to content himself with the sketch he has put into verse, without making farther progress.’

What those circumstances were to which he alludes, we know not—possibly a narrow income, and laborious avocations. The difficulty of the task alone would have been, indeed, a sufficient reason for relinquishing the attempt. To wield the machines that are here proposed to have been introduced, required no common hand. The necessary exertions were evident, but the success of them by no means clear. Had the plan been completed, we apprehend, it would have been more curious than entertaining, more scientific than poetical. To a few philosophic minds it might have appeared instructive and amusing; to the million, wild, confused, and uninteresting. Of the translator’s abilities the following poetic fragments, and there are many such occasionally scattered through the arguments of the different books, will give no unfavourable idea. The gnomes are thus introduced as bringing offerings to Pluto.

‘———Struck with his ebon wand,
Lo! the firm granite cleaves at his command
In hideous yawn. Earth opes her inmost stores,
And at his feet her choicest treasures pours.
Forth come the gnomes—their tribute they prepare,
Beings compos’d of neither earth nor air:
The various vapours of the sulph’rous mine
To form these hated sprites their powers combine.
The blaze these glittering gems diffuse around
Illumines, far and near, the dark profound,
And the grim troop in hideous lustre shews. —
Thus have I seen, where Pola’s towers once rose,
As er’st, with pensive steps I’ve wandered o’er
Each mould’ring arch, and time-worn corridor,
Declining Phœbus, with a pallid gleam,
On some poor lazar dart oblique his beam;
Who, wretched tenant of those glittering plains,
’Gainst the proud porch his palsy’d limbs sustains.
Next comes a troop, whose bending shoulders bore
The ponderous burden of each various ore,
Gold’s purest mass,—pale silver’s virgin snow,
And ruddy copper:—these unblended grow
Deep in earth’s caves, from whence the branching vein
Tempt and rewards the anxious miner’s pain.’

The

The Philosophical Dictionary: or, the Opinions of Modern Philosophers on Metaphysical, Moral, and Political Subjects. In Four Vols. 12mo. 12s. sewed. Robinson.

THE Dictionary was, we find, originally a common-place book for private use; and probably, like other collections of the same kind, it was filled by the authors which occurred, rather than collected from the best, chosen after the knowledge had become more exact, and the judgment more mature. If this suspicion explains the reason of the choice in some respects, it adds credit to the author's studies in others; we do not find many exceptionable authorities, and there are many valuable extracts. The publication may add to the amusement of travellers, who carry few books with them, or satisfy the curiosity of those who cannot purchase many books, or have little time to read them.

The origin of this collection will also explain another defect; but it is one that should, if possible, be supplied, viz. the omission of particular references to the works of the author. When we are pleased with the subject, interested in the reasoning, or willing to pursue an opinion in its consequences, the door is closed, and we are almost precluded from any farther information. The man of science and literature, in a well-furnished library, may in the less voluminous authors, soon turn to the original work; but this collection is not designed for him, and probably will never be his object. It may, however, cheat the desultory reader into useful study; it may rouse the curiosity of the more attentive; and occasionally remind the scholar of what he has forgotten. To all these, more particular references would be of great service. In another view, the omission is of consequence. In the works of every original author, there is sometimes a peculiar system, very generally a discriminated manner, and what may be called a tone of mind, which distinguishes and characterises the work. On this account, a passage which perhaps is singularly beautiful, highly useful, and easily understood, when separated from the work, and frittered into an extract, may appear unmeaning, trifling or absurd. The objection indeed militates against the whole design; but it is only alleviated by a particular reference.

In the selection, too much is taken from Voltaire and Hume: the former is an unfaithful guide, because his excellencies and errors are too intimately mixed; and his best information and justest decisions, are generally contaminated by his fancies, or destroyed by his errors. Many of Mr. Hume's most innocent passages are suspicious, for in all his works he

was systematical : he had one end in view, which he seldom lost sight of. We ought, however, to add, that no passages, so far as we have observed, are selected from either, that may be in any respect pointedly injurious, and in these instances, we should be well contented with the name of the author only.

Much is taken from Helvetius and Locke.—Somewhat from Hartley, Montesquieu, Beccaria, Raynal, Rousseau, D'Alembert, Priestley, Williams, Burke, A. Smith, Robertson, Gibbon, &c. &c. The extracts chiefly relate to the conduct of life, and general precepts of morality. Some controversial subjects occur, and, under these heads, the different opinions are selected from the most able combatants on either side.

The editor professes that the love of truth, and warm wishes for its diffusion, were his sole objects in the publication. To his professions we have no reason to object, and such designs must always share our approbation.

The Recept; or a Tale of other Times. Vol. II. and III. 12mo.
7s. Cadell.

IN our fifty-fifth Volume, p. 233, we reviewed the first volume of this interesting story; and ere the author was yet 'known to fame,' we encouraged and cherished her rising genius: concurring applauses have ratified our decisions; but long delays and indecisive hesitations seem to have impeded the progress of the story. It had raised a curiosity, which perhaps miss Lee was apprehensive she should not be able to gratify; or, in possession of fame, she might be afraid of hazarding her acquisition by another attempt. Whatever may have been the motive, the finished state of the volumes compensates for the delay; and the artificial contexture of the several incidents, the near approaches to romance, without trespassing on probability, as well as the accumulation of unexpected distress, fix the eager attention, and gratify the imagination, without an insult to the judgment.

The subsequent volumes contain the adventures of the Sisters, after their separation. Ellinor, the youngest, is beloved by Elizabeth's other favourite, the spirited and gallant Essex; but, by the machinations of the jealous queen, to whom their birth is accidentally revealed, by a complication of the deepest policy, and the most detestable villany, she is married to lord Arlington. After his death, she escapes to Essex, with a mind shaken by misfortunes, and a reason scarcely fixed, after its disturbance by the most cruel insults :
the

she rejoins him in Ireland, and is again separated from him by his sudden return to England. In her progress to rejoin him, the news of his death totally destroys her reason, and she escapes from a fixed and settled melancholy, only to survey once more the picture of Essex, and to expire in the tumult of conflicting sensations.

Matilda is scarcely more fortunate. After the death of Leicester she is carried to Jamaica, then in possession of the Spaniards, by the artifice of a pretended admirer. Her adventures and imprisonment there are gloomy and distressing : at last, she returns to England, to witness the unhappy condition of her sister. Her daughter, however, the daughter of Leicester, grows up, and blooms with all the charms she might have expected to inherit. In her the mother again revives, and in her, expects again to live ; but, by a series of adventures well arranged, this darling daughter finishes her days by poison in a prison.

Such is the imperfect outline of a story, drawn from history : it may be styled familiar history, for it fills up the vacant chasms with those little incidents not unsuitable to the greater events, or the temper of the actors. We know, for instance, that Essex lingered in Ireland, and distinguished his campaigns by few spirited or decisive actions. We are here told, that Elinor was intercepted by Tiroen, and the hours which should have been spent in the contest were idly protracted by negotiations for her deliverance. Again : we know that, from the time of Essex's execution, the queen was restless, disturbed, and unhappy. A well-managed incident is supposed to explain the cause of her distress. Elinor, with the cunning which generally accompanies madness, deceives her own guards and those of Elizabeth, and reaches the royal bedchamber, to pierce her heart with a blow of a different kind, but not less fatal than that which had deprived her of Essex—' to speak daggers, but use none.' To deceive the keepers, to whom she was intrusted, that she might escape to Essex, it was reported that she was dead ; so that Elizabeth is supposed to consider her as a spectre, commissioned to wound her bosom with another arrow. We shall select this part, as a specimen of our author's powers of description.

' The queen, wholly sunk in the chilling melancholy of incurable despair, and hopeless age, resigned herself up to the influence of those evils.—Her ladies were often employed in reading to her, which was the only amusement her chagrin admitted.—One memorable night it was my turn—Elizabeth dismissed every other attendant, in the vain hope of finding a repose of which she had for ever deprived herself. I pursued my task

a long while, when the time conspired with the orders of the queen to produce a silence so profound, that had not her starts now and then recalled my senses, hardly could my half-closed eyes have discerned the pages over which they wandered.—The door flew suddenly open—a form so fair—so fragile—so calamitous appeared there, that hardly durst my beating heart call it Ellinor. The queen started up with a feeble quickness, but had only power to falter out a convulsive ejaculation. I instantly remembered Elizabeth believed her dead, and imagined this her spectre. The beauteous phantom (for surely never mortal looked so like an inhabitant of another world) sunk on one knee, and while her long garments of black flowed gracefully over the floor, she lifted up her eyes toward heaven, with that nameless sweetness, that wild ineffable benignity, madness alone can give, then meekly bowed before Elizabeth.—The queen, heart-struck, fell back into her seat, without voice to pronounce a syllable.—Ellinor arose, and approached still nearer; standing a few moments, choaked and silent. “I once was proud, was passionate, indignant,” said the sweet unfortunate at last, in the low and broken voice of inexpressible anguish, “but heaven forbids me now to be so—Oh! you who was surely born only to chastize my unhappy race, forgive me—I have no longer any sense but that of sorrow.”—Again she sunk upon the floor, and gave way to sobbings she struggled in vain to suppress. The queen dragged me convulsively to her, and burying her face in my bosom, exclaimed indistinctly, —“save me—save me—oh, Pembroke, save me from this ghastly spectre!”—“Effex—Effex—Effex!” groaned forth the prostrate Ellinor, expressively raising her white hand at each touching repetition.—The violent shudderings of the queen, marked the deep effect that fatal name took on her,—“Somebody told me, continued the lovely wanderer, that he was in the Tower, but I have looked there for him till I am weary—is there a colder, safer prison, then? but is a prison a place for your favourite, and can you condemn him to the grave?—Ah, gracious Heaven, strike off his head—his beauteous head!—Seal up those sparkling eyes for ever.—Oh, no, I thought not, said she with an altered voice.—So you hid him here after all, only to torment me.—But Effex will not see me suffer—will you, my lord? So—so—so”—the slow progress of her eyes round the room, shewed, she in imagination followed his steps.—“Yes—yes,—added she, with revived spirits, I thought that voice would prevail, for who could ever resist it?—and only I need die then; well, I do not mind that—I will steal into his prison and suffer in his place, but be sure you do not tell him so, for he loves me—ah! dearly does he love me, but I alone need sigh at that, you know.” And sigh she did indeed.—Oh! what a world of woe was drawn up in a single breath!—The long silence which followed induced the queen once more to raise her head—the same sad object met her

her eyes, with this difference, that the sweet creature now stood up again, and putting one white hand to her forehead, the half raised the other, as earnestly demanding still to be heard, though her vague eyes shewed her purpose had escaped her.—“Oh, now I remember it, resumed she, I do not mind how you have me murdered, but let me be buried in Fotheringay; and be sure I have women to attend me; be sure of that—you know the reason.” This incoherent reference to the unprecedented fate of her royal mother, affected Elizabeth deeply.—“But could not you let me once more see him before I die? resumed the dear wanderer.—Oh! what pleasure would it give me to view him on the throne!—Oh, I do see him there! exclaimed she in the voice of surprise and transport. Benign, majestic!—Ah, how glorious in his beauty!—who would not die for thee, my Essex!”—“Alas, never, never, never, shall I see him!” groaned forth the agonized Elizabeth.——“Me married to him! resumed our friend, replying to some imaginary speech.—oh, no, I took warning by my sister!—I will have no more bloody marriages: you see I have no ring, wildly displaying her hands, except a black one; a black one indeed, if you knew all—but I need not tell you that—have I my lord?—look up—here is my love—he himself shall tell you.—She caught the hand terror had caused Elizabeth to extend, but faintly shrieking, drew back her own, surveying it with inexpressible horror. “Oh, you have dipt mine in blood! exclaimed she, a mother’s blood! I am all contaminated—It runs cold to my very heart.—Ah, no,—it is—it is the blood of Essex; and have you murdered him at last, in spite of your dotage, and your promises? murdered the most noble of mankind! and all because he could not love you. Fye on your wrinkles!—can one love age and ugliness?—Oh, how those artificial locks, and all your paintings sickened him!—How have we laughed at such preposterous folly!—But I have done with laughing now—we will talk of graves, and shrouds, and church-yards.—Methinks I fain would know where my poor sister lies buried—you will say in my heart perhaps—it has indeed entombed all I love; yet there must be some little unknown corner in this world, one might call her grave, if one could but tell where to find it: there she rests at last with her Leicester—he was your favourite too—a bloody, bloody distinction.”—The queen who had with difficulty preserved her senses till this cutting period, now sunk back into a deep swoon.’

Miss Lee has attended, in these volumes, more carefully to costume, in which we observed, that she had been deficient in the first volume: and, on the whole, has fully answered the expectations she had raised. Her history is, indeed, a tale of woe, and the wrath of heaven seems, in every instance, to pursue its fairest offspring. This is, probably, a double error:—we are led to feel, that the most guarded conduct, and the

the most virtuous intentions, cannot save us from distress; and, from seeing that these cannot ensure success, we may neglect to deserve it: in another view, misfortunes lose their effect by their being continually presented to the mind, without a vivid ray to break through the cloud, without a pleasing prospect, or a short enjoyment to contrast them. We think our author has been too uniformly gloomy: the mind sinks under continued distress in real life; it escapes from imaginary misfortunes; and the attention fails, when there is no respite for the wounded feelings. The great, though not the only source from which pleasure is derived, in consequence of the representation of distressing scenes, is the emotion, or rather the employment of the mind, on subjects which interest it. When this employment is too long continued, fatigue rather than gratification is the consequence. Perhaps Miss Lee might have attained a greater proportion of fame, if she had attended to this circumstance; yet her other merits are so considerable, that we have no reason to fear the reputation of her work will be greatly lessened by it.

The language is not like that of the age of Elizabeth; it is in some instances incorrect, and occasionally obscure; yet her descriptions are clear, animated, and vivid; the incidents varied and numerous; the different adventures related with spirit and precision; and the reflections just, pertinent, and moral.

Eight Sermons on the Prophecies respecting the Destruction of Jerusalem, preached before the University of Oxford, in the Year 1785. At the Lecture founded by the late Rev. John Bampton, M. A. Canon of Salisbury. By Ralph Churton, M. A. Fellow of Brasen Nose College. 8vo. 4s. White.

SHOULD the reader, in these Sermons, expect that grace, splendour, and animation of style, which so highly distinguished the late discourses of Mr. Professor White, at this Lecture, he will probably be disappointed; not but that Mr. Churton's language is sometimes very spirited, often interesting, and generally not ill suited to the nature of the subject he treats.

Sermon I. on Matt. vi. 10. *Thy Kingdom come*,—in which the author displays learning and critical skill, has a little too much of the stiff air of a dissertation for the pulpit. The author is of opinion, that this verse of St. Matt. xvi. 28. *Verily I say unto you, there be some standing here which shall not taste of Death till they see the Son of Man coming in his Kingdom*

dem—refers to our Saviour's transfiguration. He allows, that the best of our commentators do not refer it to that event; but insists that Origen, Chrysostom, and the rest of the fathers, unanimously apply it so; and seconds their opinion with some plausible reasoning.

The author, on Matt. xxvi. 29. *I will not drink henceforth of this Fruit of the Vine until that Day when I shall drink it with you in my Father's Kingdom*—does not admit the more common interpretations of this passage; but thinks that, without any figure, it may be understood of the time between our Lord's resurrection and ascension; during which, we know, to prove beyond dispute the verity of his body, he condescended both to eat and drink with his disciples.—Our limits will not allow us to enter into the arguments on which this opinion is founded.

Serm. II. is on Matt. xxiv. 14. *This Gospel of the Kingdom shall be preached in all the World, for a Witness unto all Nations, and then shall the End come.* From this text we learn, according to our author, one of the signs which our Saviour gave to his disciples, whereby it might be known, that the desolation of the Temple, and the overthrow of the Jewish state, were nigh at hand.

Serm. III. Matt. xxiv. 4, 5. *Take Heed that no Man deceive you. For many shall come in my Name, saying, I am Christ; and shall deceive many.* Here Mr. Churton discovers another mark of the time of the approaching vengeance, mentioned in the foregoing discourse. The distinctions our author fixes betwixt true and false prophets, and true and false workers of miracles, are ingenious, and evince considerable ability.

Serm. IV. Matt. xxiv. 8. *All these are the beginning of Sorrows.* The signs of wrath, and the commencement of trouble, are, in this Sermon, illustrated in an interesting and convincing manner, from Josephus's Wars of the Jews.

Serm. V. Luke xxi. 20, 21. *When ye shall see Jerusalem compassed with Armies, then know, that the Desolation thereof is nigh. Then let them which are in Judea flee to the Mountains.* The accomplishment of Christ's prophecy shews the probable meaning of the *abomination of desolation*, to be the Roman standards, in the army of Caius Cæstius appearing on the feast of tabernacles, in the year 66, at Jerusalem; and that, by the holy place, was meant no more than the city in general. This point being treated at large, the author concludes the discourse with the providential delivery of the Christians, who at that time fled from Jerusalem to Pella, in consequence of the injunction given them in the text to depart.

Serm. VI,

Serm. VI. Luke xix. 41, 42, 43, 44. *And when he was come near, he beheld the city and wept over it, &c.*—on the miseries of the siege, and the final dissolution of the city and the temple. This discourse is chiefly historical, and abounds with affecting circumstances, well described.

Serm. VII. Rom. xi. 25, 26. *I would not that ye should be ignorant (lest ye should be wise in your own Conceits) that Blindness, in Part is happened to Israel, until the Fulness of the Gentiles be come in. And so all Israel shall be saved.* Many of the evidences from the Old and New Testament, relative to the final conversion of the Jews, are here slightly touched upon, but in a way that gives satisfaction. This Sermon completes the plan of the author's course of lectures.

Serm. VIII. John xiv. 29. *I have told you before it come to pass, that when it is come to pass ye might believe.* This last discourse is little more than a recapitulation of the principal points of argument in the foregoing Sermons; in which summary view these points are forcibly sketched.

We shall conclude this article with the following short but spirited reflection towards the end of this last discourse.

‘ Had these prophecies been forged, had they been produced yesterday, and accommodated to the circumstances of all past ages, the face of things to-day might bely the predictions, and expose the impostor. Let this singular people be no longer different from other people; let them adopt the religions, and become members of the states of the various countries, whether Christian, Mahometan, or Pagan, wherein they reside; melt them down in the mass of mankind, and let them not be distinguishable from other men; or, if you choose, separate them from the midst of other nations, transplant them into some unoccupied region, colonize with them some uninhabited island, and let them there observe their religion and their laws. On either supposition (and either is possible, if the holy scriptures are not true) you demonstrate those predictions to be forgeries, which declare that their infidelity and dispersion shall be of equal duration; that they shall continue distinct, not till they swerve to idolatry, or sink into Mahometism, but till they look upon Him whom they pierced. Days and years roll on, and sweep away in their course the operations of men, and the dreams of error; but truth is a pillar of adamant, immoveable as the poles of heaven. Seventeen centuries have passed over the sons of dispersion, and seen them the objects of constant wretchedness; nor would seventeen thousand see them extinct, or their situation altered, should they not in the mean time embrace the gospel.

‘ The truth then of the scriptures of the New Testament, the prophecies whereof have been fulfilled, and are daily fulfilling, being as certain as that God is true ; there are two inferences from the whole of the argument, which claim our attention.’

For these inferences we must refer our readers to the volume itself, which has undoubted merit.

Sermons on various Subjects ; with an Account of the Principles of Protestant Dissenters, their Mode of Worship, and Forms of Public Prayer, Baptism, and the Lord's Supper. By H. Kirkpatrick. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Johnson.

IN an introduction of fifty-six pages, this author has given a clear and sufficient account of the principles of the Presbyterians, and particularly of those which distinguish them from the established church. We do not often find a sketch on any subject conveying more information in so narrow a compass. The grand characteristic feature of this sect of nonconformists will be very intelligibly presented to our readers by the paragraphs following :

‘ By the word dissenter, in general, is meant, every one who does not conform to the established religion of this country, except Roman catholics. But I mean not to take in every description of men of this sort ; there are many I am much a stranger to, and others, perhaps, of whom I am totally ignorant. By the word dissenter, I would therefore be understood to mean the persons commonly called Presbyterians.

‘ These differ not from the church in any point of doctrinal faith, more than its own members differ one from another. There are many non-conformists, who believe all the articles as expressed in the book of Common Prayer, except those relating to church power and government.

‘ Praying without a printed, or composed form of prayer, is not a distinguishing difference betwixt a churchman and a dissenter. Some of the latter, prefer composed forms to those delivered from memory, or which are commonly called extempore. Nor are the vestments, and forms made use of, as standing and kneeling, material objections to the established church, with the persons I am describing.

‘ The grand distinguishing difference betwixt a churchman and a Presbyterian is this ; the latter claims a sole right of judging for himself, in matters of religion ; he acknowledges Jesus Christ as the sole head of the church ; and asserts that no man, or body of men upon earth, have any right to pre-
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scribe forms of worship, or articles of faith, for his observance and belief: that this is contrary to the spirit of the Christian religion, and to the unalienable rights of conscience, and tends to destroy genuine piety, and rational devotion.

A dissenter is therefore no more than simply this: viz. a Christian and a Protestant, without any one point of doctrinal faith peculiar to him as such, claiming to himself a right of private judgment, and the interpretation of those scriptures, which contain the Christian religion; and denying the authority of the civil magistrate in these matters, over the judgment and consciences of men. On the contrary, members of the establishment entirely give up this principle, and profess it to be their duty to receive those articles of faith, and attend that mode of public worship, which has been formed by others, and prescribed by law, though they may differ from their own private creed: or they allow (Article XX.) "that the church hath power to decree rites or ceremonies, and authority in controversies of faith, &c." A dissent from this article I consider as the grand and distinguishing difference betwixt non-conformists and the members of the established church.

Mr. Kirkpatrick then dispatches, in a few words, the method of conducting public worship among these dissenters.—The remaining part of the introductory discourse is employed principally in noticing the difference of opinion, which subsists between the dissenters and the church of England, relative to baptism, confirmation, the Lord's Supper, and the burial of the dead. The friends of the author's sect will probably give him credit for the acuteness of his observations, and such as think differently, will hardly accuse him of wanting temper, or indeed moderation.

The volume contains eight Sermons. The first discourse treats of *the Necessity of a constant and steady Regard to the Precepts of Religion and Morality*. Mr. Kirkpatrick insists, with ingenuity and some force of argument, that, in the estimation of human actions before God, the greatest regard will probably be had to the habitual conduct and disposition of the mind in the latter part of life, in case there shall have happened, at its different periods, a great change in our moral demeanor. The Sermon on *the Sufferings and Death of Jesus Christ* abounds with pious and edifying reflections. The third, on *our Saviour's Temptation in the Wilderness*, considers this representation as a vision. This method removes several difficulties; but, in our opinion, not all. The discourse is, however,

ever, ingenious. Sermon IV. is on *Brotherly Love*. V. On *Man's Ignorance what Events conduce most to his truest Happiness*. VI. On the *superior Importance of improving the Mind to adorning the Body*. This title is not neatly expressed. VII. On *glorifying God in all our Actions*. VIII. *Observations on the History of the blind Man that was restored to Sight by Jesus*. This Sermon seems to express more foreness, in some reflections on the establishment, than we should have expected from this author, in these times of moderation.

The discourses, on the whole, are pious, practical, and well written. What follows them, and concludes the volume, is mentioned in the title-page.

The Strangers at Home ; a Comic Opera, in Three Acts : as performed at the Theatre-Royal in Drury-Lane. 8vo, 1s. 6d. Harrison.

THE incidents in this opera are founded on a simple and natural event, viz. the return of some captives delivered from slavery, in which they had been confined at Algiers. Many were supposed dead, and few expected to return ; so that the situation of their friends may suggest some interesting scenes. The general plan is of so favourable a kind, that our expectations were highly raised ; but the conduct of the author did not support them. A series of inconsistencies destroy the probability by which alone we are interested. The most intimate acquaintance do not recognise some of these happy strangers ; while others, who have been absent an equal time, and subjected to the same hardships, are immediately known. Too much is also attributed to disguise ; and the situations, in consequence of the changes of dress only, are so intricate, that the mind labours, in understanding them, to a degree incompatible with pleasure. The characters are common, and not well discriminated. The language is neither witty or humorous ; the former is supplied by equivocal frequently so remote as to require Italics in the closet, and a pointed delivery on the stage ; the latter by trite or trifling observations.—Yet this opera is not without merit. Where the plot is not too intricate, it is lively and interesting ; successive incidents awaken the attention ; and the poetry is often animated and elegant. If we consider this piece in the light of a pleasing trifle, a vehicle for music, we may have examined it too strictly ; and the faults may not be such as to diminish the pleasure of the representation. The audience were of this opinion, probably for the reasons we have given. On

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our board it must have a more pointed trial ; its faults and merits must be strictly scanned, and the decision be made on a careful comparison of the weight of each. The author may properly allege, in arrest of judgment, that he designed to please only on the stage ; and that, in this trial, he has been acquitted with honour. If this be his plea, we shall at least delay the sentence.

The story of the opera would detain us too long, and not be easily understood ; so that, we shall proceed to insert some short specimens.

The first chorus is most easily detached from the plot. It is sung by the captives, on their return.

• Welcome once more our native land !

Where smiling Freedom's bounteous hand

Life's fading picture bids to glow

With tints she can alone bestow !

'Tis Liberty inspires the lay,

To hail our second natal day :

Hail, goddess bright ! by all ador'd ;

By thee to more than life restor'd.

The first scene of the second act is no improper specimen of the dialogue ; and the concluding song is pleasing and poetical.

• *Laurence*. Tell the cook to make haste, Alice. I like my victuals rather under done.

• *Alice*. You have been us'd to eat your meat rare, I suppose ?

• *Laur*. Yes, the meat that came to my share in Algiers was very rare, indeed !—not above once a month.

• *Alice*. And how did they treat you, Laurence ? tell me all about it.

• *Laur*. They treated me with my board, to be sure—to sleep on I mean ; a scarcity of bread and water ; and plenty of stripes and hard labour. For my part, I had rather pay my own way in Florence, than be treated so by the best Algerine of 'em all !

• *Alice*. Pray, Laurence, had your master many wives ?

• *Laur*. Wives ! aye, in every hole and corner of his house : they ran about like rabbits in a warren !

• *Alice*. And did not you turn poacher now and then, and snap up a stray rabbit ?—Eh ! Laurence ?

• *Laur*. Not I, indeed ! I had a much keener appetite for a fat capon.—Hunger is a bitter enemy to gallantry !—Besides, the Infidels have ways of keeping their wives to themselves, which we have not yet attain'd.

• *Alice*.

' *Alice*. By making slaves of them!—Thank my stars, that odious fashion does not prevail in Christendom!

' *Laur*. "No, the matter is just revers'd with us: in all Christian countries, the wives keep their husbands in subjection."—But here comes madam Viola!

' *Enter Viola*.

' *Viola*. Honest Laurence, I am rejoic'd to see you once more at home!

' *Laur*. Thank ye, ma'am!—I am much rejoic'd to see myself here!

' *Viola*. I imagine you have had a sufficient sample of travelling?

' *Laur*. Enough to last me my life, ma'am!

' *Viola*. And what think you of the men and manners where you have been?

' *Laur*. As for the men, the least said about them is the best; and, as for their manners, egad! I never was treated with so much ill-manners, by any other set of people before or since!

' *Viola*. Laurence, you are released from the chains of a tyrant, just time enough to see me in fetters!

' *Rondeau*.

' Woman's fate is still distressing,

Be her lot whate'er it will;

Man perverts her every blessing

To a cause of future ill.

' If with charms her form enduing,

Nature kindest care employs,

Man, the gaudy prize pursuing,

Conquers first, and then destroys.

' Riches serve but to entoil her;

Like the bee with honey stor'd,

Her wealth allures the cruel spoiler,

And doom's her—victim of her hoard.'

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

P O L I T I C A L.

Certain Arrangements in Civil Policy, necessary for the further Improvement of Husbandry, Mines, Fisheries, and Manufacture in this Kingdom. By the Hon. A. Fraser. 8vo. 1s. Cadeil.

MR. Fraser, in a very rational manner, points out the difficulties attending every improvement in agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, where the local situation of a

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country subjects it to various disadvantages. It would have been a much more agreeable theme for observation, had he endeavoured to show by what means those natural disadvantages might either be corrected or alleviated; as every such unfavourable picture of the state of a nation tends rather to damp than afford encouragement to the exertions of industry. We, therefore, hope that Mr. Fraser will, on some future occasion, turn his thoughts to this important enquiry.

The Present State of Great Britain considered; and the National Debt discussed, towards a radical and speedy Payment. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Becket.

The author of this pamphlet sets out with observing, that since the late war, which has increased the national debt to an exorbitant sum, every little politician has been proposing schemes for discharging it. When he speaks in this contemptuous style of his honest fellow-labourers in the public service, he seems not to reflect that, notwithstanding the opinion which he betrays of his own superiority, he may perhaps be arranged in the same class. It is certain, at least, that this author yields to none in what relates to the spirit of innovation. All the plans, however, which he suggests, are not entirely new; and, under particular modifications, we doubt not that some of them might be adopted with advantage to the public. It would be unnecessary to make any farther observations, at present, on the schemes proposed by this author.

Letters from the Right Honourable W—— E—— on the late Political Arrangement. 8vo. 1s. Bladon.

Letter to the Earl of Carlisle, from the Right Honourable William Eden, on the Subject of the late Arrangement. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Walker.

These Letters bear the most evident marks of their spurious origin. They have arisen from the licentiousness of the times, and must therefore be consigned to oblivion.

Thoughts upon a Bill, lately offered to Parliament, for regulating the Export and Import of Corn: with Observations upon Dean Tucker's Reflections, so far as they relate to this Subject. 8vo. 1s. Pridden.

To devise regulations for the exportation and importation of corn, is a subject which has repeatedly afforded exercise to the legislative wisdom of parliament. But no law, hitherto enacted, has proved sufficient for restraining frauds and abuses in this important article of commerce. A bill was brought into parliament last session, with the view of remedying those evils; but, for particular reasons, was withdrawn. The pamphlet now before us is intended to furnish light towards a reconsideration of this great national object: but such is the misrepresentation

presentation to which it is liable, from the prejudice and artifices of interested individuals, that in the framing of a new law, the most accurate enquiry and mature deliberation will be necessary.

Two Letters addressed to the Right Hon. W. Pitt, Chancellor of the Exchequer, for obtaining an equal System of Taxation, and for reducing the National Debt. By P. Barfoot, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

In what Mr. Barfoot suggests concerning taxation, we meet with nothing that is new. His idea is the common one, that the taxes on the necessities of life should be reduced, and the deficiency of the revenue supplied by additional imposts on luxury.—With regard to the discharge of the national debt, his opinion nearly corresponds with that of lord Newhaven on the same subject.

Liberal Opinions on Taxation, and a new System of Funding. Small 8vo. Printed for the Author.

This author maintains, as a just and rational principle, that the public creditors ought to be liable to the expences incurred by national defence. To introduce such a system into our finances, he recommends the opening of a subscription for one million, by way of experiment. The terms to be four per cent. per annum perpetual stock, but liable to fluctuations of interest, according to a rate which he specifies. He proposes that money upon mortgage should likewise be charged with the additional tax. That our author's opinions proceed from a liberality of disposition, we entertain not the smallest degree of doubt; but there is little reason to expect that this virtue will ever operate successfully in the science of finance.

A Letter from Warren Hastings, Esq. Dated 21st of February, 1784. With Remarks and Authentic Documents to support the Remarks. 8vo. 1s. Ridgway.

The author of the Remarks on this Letter examines it with a degree of acuteness not free from the suspicion of personal animosity; but by whatever motives he may be actuated, to urge a charge of delinquency, after leave has been granted for a public enquiry by parliament, betrays a conduct not perfectly reconcilable with the principles of justice and moderation.

A Letter from Warren Hastings, Esq. Governor-General of Bengal, to the Honourable the Court of Directors of the East-India Company. Dated from Lucknow, April 30. With a Postscript, Dated May 13, 1784. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

In this Letter Mr. Hastings recites the history of his negotiation with the nabob vizier Owde; his treatment of whom, we cannot but acknowledge, appears to have been greatly misrepresented.

Advice to the Lord Lieutenants of Counties, commanding Regiments of Militia. Small 8vo. 1s. Walker.

This pamphlet is of the ironical kind; and, if we may form an opinion upon the great variety of circumstances suggested by the author, he is a person extremely well acquainted with the abuses committed in the management of the militia.

Observations on the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons appointed to enquire into the State of the British Fishery. By Robert Fall, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Debrett.

As the extension and improvement of the British fisheries are now the object of parliamentary attention, these Observations are of great importance. They are the production of an able and intelligent man, who has joined experience to knowledge, and whose views are neither partial or confined. We perceive, indeed, occasionally, a little bias, a little predilection, arising from local circumstances and situation; but these are prejudices which few can avoid. The Observations relate to a very extensive report on this subject, the effects of a careful and attentive enquiry; but, though apparently simple, it is encumbered with difficulties. These have been sensibly felt by the committee; and, therefore, it becomes not a subject of discussion in this place, except under a more general and abstracted view, as a political and a commercial enquiry.

A Second Address to Parliament on a Subject of the first Consequence to the Welfare of the State. By William Renwick. 8vo. 1s. Law.

In our Fifty-ninth Volume, page 389, we gave our opinion of the first Address. The purport of the second is the same; but, while its object is equally important and deserving of attention, the style is improved, the language is less vague, and the digressions not so numerous. We can only wish the author success, without flattering him with the prospect of obtaining it.

D I V I N I T Y.

Sermons, doctrinal and practical, on several Subjects. By D. Grant, Minister of the Gospel at Newcastle. 12mo. 2s. Ed. sewed. Dilly.

This volume contains sixteen Sermons on the following subjects. I. The Wisdom of God illustrated in the Humiliation of Christ.—II. The Love of God to the World.—III. Christ, the Christian's all.—IV. The great Salvation.—V. The Folly of neglecting the Gospel.—VI. A heavenly Conversation described.—VII. Jesus, the Object of the Christian's Desire.—VIII. The same Subject continued.—IX. The Example of Christ.

Christ.—X. The same Subject continued.—XI. The Presence of God with his People.—XII. The same Subject continued. XIII. Comfort to the Afflicted.—XIV. The same Subject continued.—XV. The Life of Faith in the Time of Affliction.—XVI. The same Subject continued.

These discourses are affecting and serious, with some little tendency perhaps towards gloominess. We are doubtful whether they be not better calculated to inspire quiescent devotion and religious melancholy, than that vigorous and active piety, the ordinary Christian's better character, as fitting him to live uncorruptly in the midst of society, which he neither can, nor ought to desert. Our author's language is generally plain and easy, but warm and pathetic. It abounds with apostrophe and interrogative, and has more force than elegance.

A Sermon preached at York, on Wednesday the 13th of April, 1785, for the Benefit of the Lunatic Asylum. By Robert Pierston, A. M. 4to. 1s. Cadell.

This is a pious and rational discourse, written with elegance, and not deficient in pathos. We shall select the author's short and affecting description of lunacy, as a specimen of his manner.

'Of all the afflictions which are incident to man, none is so shocking as that of lunacy—none so humiliating—none that excites the pity and compassion of the benevolent and humane, in a stronger degree.' Reason, which was originally bestowed on man, to distinguish him from the brute creation, to be the guide of his actions, and to become a perpetual source of pleasure and entertainment to his mind, is here, alas! strangely overpowered and obstructed. When this alarming change takes place, what a dreadful situation is the poor sufferer reduced to? Like a ship bereft of its rudder, he drives before the storm, and is dashed to pieces on the first rock that presents itself. The conflict must be terrible indeed; for reason no sooner yields up her reins, than the unhappy lunatic is bent upon destroying his life—now, seemingly, a burden too grievous to be born. Strange perversion of the ordinary course of human nature! For God has wisely implanted in us an inviolable attachment to life; and has impressed us with a natural dread of death.'

A Sermon preached in the Church of St. Nicholas, Rochester, on June 24, 1785, (Being the Day of the Visitation of the Rev. John Law, D.D. Archdeacon of Rochester,) on the Introduction of Sunday Schools. By the Rev. Charles Moore, M. A. 4to. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

We learn from the author's short preface, that this discourse met the general approbation of a clerical audience; many of whom had, as he was afterwards informed, previously employed much of their thoughts and endeavours to establish the scheme he recommends. We can, however, well conceive the good sense and discreet zeal he has manifested must have entitled his

Sermon not at all the less to favourable reception on account of the foregoing circumstance. Mr. Moore has added a large Appendix, containing various arguments on the utility and importance of Sunday schools, and answers to objections, together with a particular account of their establishment in his own parishes. This part is properly written in a more familiar style than the Sermon, and well calculated to impress a due sense of the advantages of Sunday schools on the yeomanry of the country, and that class of readers more immediately interested in providing the means of their establishment. We warmly recommend both the Sermon and the Appendix to the consideration of the public, confessing ourselves much inclined to wish success to these undertakings, whilst experience continues to speak, as it has done, in their behalf.

We will tempt none of our readers to content themselves with an extract from this performance, as the whole deserves their serious perusal.

A Sermon on Galatians iv. 6. Preached in the episcopal Chapel at Hayfield, Derbyshire, on Trinity Sunday. By C. Bayley. The Second Edition. 12mo. 1s. Longman.

The Scripture Doctrine of a Trinity vindicated; according to the Principles of the illuminated Emanuel Swedenborg. To which some Remarks are prefixed, upon a Sermon with Notes, lately published by C. Bayley, in Opposition to that Doctrine. 8vo. Printed for the Author.

The Swedenborgian Doctrine of a Trinity considered: or, Strictures on a late Publication, entitled, The Scripture Doctrine of a Trinity vindicated; according to the Principles of the illuminated Emanuel Swedenborg. With Remarks upon a Sermon on Gal. iv. 6. 12mo. 1s. Longman.

The first of the three articles, viz. Mr. Bayley's Sermon, militates strongly against the idea of the famous Swedenborg, on the Trinity. The author, in the following note at page eleventh, briefly acquaints us with Swedenborg's opinion, and his own sentiments upon it, which he maintains at large in the discourse itself, from the consideration of numerous passages both in the Old and New Testament.

"A Trinity of Persons," says a late writer, "was unknown in the apostolic church, whilst the apostles lived, and for two or three ages after their decease." If the author had never read the writings of the fathers of the first ages of Christianity, we may apologise for his assertion. But surely it was then known and defended. Tertullian was alive at the time of St. John's death, and was the first who wrote professedly against the notion of there being only a nominal distinction in the godhead. In his days arose, in Asia, the heretic Praxeas, who maintained there was no plurality of persons in the godhead. Against the opinions of this man, Tertullian wrote a treatise, wherein

wherein he proves a real distinction of the Sacred Three, and which he expresses in such high terms, as to call the Son another from the Father, and the Holy Ghost another from both of them: and alledges the passage of St. John, in his 1st Epist. v. 7. *Ita connexus Patris in Filio, et Filii in Paracleta, tres efficit cophærentes, alterum ex altero; qui tres unum sunt, non unus; quomodo dictum est, Ego et Pater unum sumus.* Cap. xxv.
 “ Thus the connexion of the Father with the Son, and of the Son with the Holy Spirit, causes these three to be united together, one with another; which Three are One thing or being, not one person, in the same manner as it is said, I and my Father are One.”

The anonymous defender of Swedenborgh, art. 2, tells us, that this author, treating expressly of the Trinity, affirms that there is a divine Trinity of Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, which he proves from the Scriptures, not omitting the passage in St. John's first Epistle, v. 7. but distinguishing it by capital characters; and he observes, that *these three are three essentials of the one God, which make one, like the soul, body, and operation in man*; a comparison, adds our vindicator, which may be familiarized to every one's capacity and experience. — This doctrine he defends, as being that of Scripture, against what Mr. Bayley has advanced in opposition to it in several parts of his Sermon. There is more acuteness, and appearance of cool reasoning in this vindication, than might have been expected from an admirer of the *illuminated* Emanuel Swedenborgh. We are, however, far from being convinced of the conformity of this doctrine to that of the Scriptures; and think that Mr. Bayley, in his Strictures, art. 3, has displayed more learning and argument in defence of the commonly received doctrine of the Trinity, contended for in his Sermon, than his antagonist will easily overthrow.

A Caveat addressed to the Catholics of Worcester, against the insinuating Letter of Mr. Wharton. By William Pilling. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Coghlan.

Ye good Catholics! of Worcester, if ye will take the advice of a Protestant Reviewer, ye will diligently peruse Mr. Pilling's Caveat. If Mr. Wharton's insinuating Letter hath contributed any thing toward bringing you nearer to Protestantism, the bigotry, violence, and narrow exclusive spirit of the Caveat, will, we think, go far toward completing the work. All that may still remain to do, will hardly fail of its accomplishment, if you can be persuaded to add to the perusal of the Caveat, that of the Bible.

M E D I C A L.

Observations on the Scurvy. By Thomas Trotter, a Surgeon of his Majesty's Navy, &c. 8vo. 2s. Robinson.

It is no uncommon remark from a navy-surgeon, that a practitioner on land knows nothing of the scurvy. Our author has written

written these Observations to prove it, and particularly to confute Dr. Millman's theory of debility. We reviewed this work in our Fifty-fourth Volume, and pointed out some of its Imperfections. Mr. Trotter describes the scurvy, as it occurred in a Guinea ship, among the Negroes; and has elucidated his subject by this new appearance. He defends Dr. Cullen's opinion, that the disease arises from a saline acrimony, and a tenuity of the fluids, sometimes from salted meats, but occasionally, particularly among his Negroes, from other causes. He has added some arguments for this opinion to the stock, though he has not yet established it; for debility is a very constant attendant, either as a cause or effect of the other changes. At the same time, as we formerly alledged, debility will not, alone, explain the several symptoms.

Our author adds some remarks on the treatment of scurvy. He thinks the malt infusions, and even the sour kroust, of little consequence; and recommends unripe bottled gooseberries as an useful addition to the sea-stock, and the acetous jelly of oatmeal (sowens) as a part of a seaman's diet. We think some of our more acid wines, either from gooseberries or currants, might be highly serviceable, and would recommend a trial of them diluted with water instead of grog.—Mr. Trotter is well acquainted with his subject, and speaks from experience; but we are sorry to add, that his language is very exceptionable.

P O E T R Y.

A poetical and congratulatory Epistle to James Boswell, Esq. on his Journal of a Tour to the Hebrides. By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 2s. Kearsley,

We have often suggested, that this ingenious and entertaining author deviated too far into the paths of illiberality, where he is certain of finding many equally abusive, who could never soar with him to the same height, either in wit or poetry. It is the fate perhaps of these genuine descendants of Yorick, rather than of Pindar, to despise the counsels of the grave and discreet, till they fall into the pit which malice and revenge have digged, and to which levity and high spirits have impelled them. We despair of success while we repeat our cautions, and strenuously urge our friend Peter, to whom we are highly indebted, to regard them with more attention. The pleasant vanity of the journalist was a proper subject of his satire: the stroke would have tickled, but not have wounded. When he advances to higher ranks, he loses sight not only of judgment but of decorum, and deserves severe reprehension.

We need scarcely observe, that our author's eye, which is always open to perceive the folly of the moment, has glanced at some exceptionable passages in Mr. Boswell's Journal, with its usual acuteness and penetration. The lash follows with equal celerity and force. Yet we do not think our author so
happy

happy in these strictures as in his former criticisms. The best parts are the beginning and the conclusion, which we shall now select.

' O Boswell, Bozzy, Bruce, whate'er thy name,
Thou mighty shark for anecdote and fame;
Thou jackall, leading Lyon Johnson forth
To eat M^r Pherfon 'midst his native North;
To frighten grave professors with his roar,
And shake the Hebrides from shore to shore.'—

The concluding lines are also excellent: the parody will be sufficiently obvious.

' Blest be thy labours, most advent'rous Bozzy,
Bold rival of fir John, and dame Piozzi *;
Heav'ns! with what laurels shall thy head be crown'd!
A grove, a forest, shall thy ears surround!
Yes! whilst the Rambler shall a comet blaze,
And gild a world of darkness with his rays,
Thee too, that world, with wonderment shall hail,
A lively, bouncing cracker at his tail!' "

Socrates and Xantippe: a Burlesque Tale. By William Walbeck.
4to. 2s. Bew.

The old tale of Socrates and Xantippe, the *stormy tale* terminated by the *showers*, is humorously versified in the little pamphlet now before us. We need not enlarge on the subject, but must express our approbation of the author's talents in the burlesque style. Mr. Walbeck might have obtained more of our praise, if his humorous levity, in one or two passages, had been better restrained; though we should add, that we have met with nothing very exceptionable. The following advice, however, makes ample amends for any transitory error.

' 'Twill swell my poem to a tract;
I fear; but, if you will, the Muse
Shall teach you maidens how to act;
You bachelors to chuse.

' First, as ye hope to married be,
Girls, never from decorum swerve:
O'er-step not that safe boundary
Of female happiness—reserve.'

Again,

' Of conquests vain, the girl who wants
To captivate a many men,
From time to time may get gallants,
But a true lover ne'er will gain.

' Self-love, or pride,—'tis much the same,—
In every breast is rooted deep.
When for new suitors women aim,
The old, of course, aloof will keep.

* Sir John Hawkins, and the late Mrs. Thrale.

' Did

' Did ye but know your interest,
Not ev'n in fancy would ye rove :
'Tis sentiment that gives the zest,
And makes a luxury of love.'

The notes are sometimes humorous, but oftener of the trifling kind ; for burlesque of ancient manners is now so trite, that it scarcely raises a smile. The conclusion of the following passage is finely pointed. Perhaps the author's opinion is well-founded ; but on this we would not decide ; for to lay unhallowed hands on the humour of Sterne is, we think, a service of equal danger with displacing the armour of Orlando.

' Having mentioned " Tristram Shandy," I must trespass another moment on your patience, to comment on that motley work ; a work whose wit has justly raised the author to very high rank,—but,—with as many foul blots in his escutcheon, as there are stars and dashes in his book. Pity ! that no one has set set about refining it ; separating as much as may be of the pure ore from its dross and recrement. Nor need a man of talents (for no other can do it) think it derogatory to undertake it : he would deserve so well of community, as to stand next in rank to Sterne upon earth, and before him in heaven.'

Dunstan Park ; or an Evening Walk. A Poem. By T. Rhodes, a Journeyman Ribbon-weaver. 8vo. 6d. Newbury, printed for the Author.

This honest weaver seems totally unacquainted with that airy stuff which, according to Mr. Mason,

— ' weav'd in Fancy's loom,

Floats in light vision round the poet's head.'

He appears to be a good sort of man, not destitute of common sense, but he is no poet.

N O V E L S.

The Errors of Innocence. A Novel. In Five Volumes. 12mo. 15s. Robinsons.

The different parts of this novel are of very unequal merit. An obscurity in the conduct of the story, at first perplexes the reader, and the connection of the several events is at last traced with difficulty. On the other hand, good sense, strict morality, and the most guarded propriety of conduct, in many of the characters, render it a salutary lesson to those who eagerly pursue similar productions. Vice and folly are also exposed to censure and ridicule. The author seems capable of commanding the heart, and all its finer sensations ; of harrowing up the soul with distress, of softening it with pity, or expanding it with joy. We can only attribute her failure, in some parts, to haste, perhaps to inexperience. In the beginning she seems to have had no regular plan, and consequently could not provide for the succeeding events.

Fanny.

Fanny. A Novel. Written by a Lady. In a Series of Letters. 3 Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d. sewed. Richardson.

This is an interesting little story, related in a pleasing manner, without the degree of perfection which will enable it to bear the approach of the torch of criticism, without revealing some considerable imperfections. Let it then be extinguished; for the aim of such little artless productions is to soothe the wrinkled brow, instead of adding to its furrows: to amuse the mind, and mend the heart. In these respects, our fair author deserves our praise.

Edwin and Anna, a Northumbrian Tale, founded on Facts, written by Edwin himself. 3 Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d. Scatcherd and Whitaker.

This is a confused medley of modern and ancient anecdotes; for the author, who was employed by sir George Lyttelton, though he knows not how to spell his name, speaks with equal freedom of some of the *present very respectable* inhabitants of Paternoster-row. We suspect the Tale to be a new edition, with *additions*, of an older story.

The author is frequently in a humorous vein, but his attempts are unsuccessful; and he is sometimes pathetic, without the power of drawing a tear. He is not unacquainted with the northern parts of England, or the manners and language of the seceders, a sect of dissenters from the kirk of Scotland; but this heterogeneous mixture of poetry and prose, of religion and humour, is neither interesting or entertaining.

Melwyn Dale, A Novel. In a Series of Letters. By a Lady. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Lane.

The usual characters, trite sentiments, and an expected catastrophe, will characterise this novel. Is it new? or is it old? We confess we know not. We suspect it to be a literary patch-work, and consign it to the oblivion which it deserves,

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

Cary's Actual Survey of Middlesex, on a Scale of an Inch to a Mile; wherein the Roads, Rivers, Woods, and Commons; as well as every Market Town, Village, &c. are distinguished, and every Seat shewn, with the Name of the Possessor. Preceded by a General Map of the County, divided into its Hundreds. To which is added, an Index of all the Names contained in the Plates. 8vo. By J. Cary, Engraver, Map and Print-seller. 5s. sewed.

This beautiful delineation of Middlesex, is contained in twenty-eight octavo maps, in which all the high roads are distinctly traced in a brown colour, and every country seat of note,

note, with their parks, terraces, ponds, &c. displayed in green. Mr. Cary must have bestowed great expence and labour in accomplishing this Survey; and when the public becomes acquainted with its merit, we hope that such industry, so happily adapted both to use and gratification, will not be unrewarded.

Mr. Cary has entitled this production the Survey of Middlesex; but it contains, likewise, the extent of several miles of the neighbouring counties.

The Tour of Valentine. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Johnson.

The design of this work is to mix instruction with entertainment; but the chief object is to instruct the ignorant both in their religious and moral duties. On these subjects, the lessons are often salutary. Though the religious tenets seem to breathe somewhat too much of the enthusiasm of a sect, and perhaps may fail from their strictness, yet we perceive nothing offensive in those branches which can influence the conduct. Some judicious and sensible remarks, on different subjects, are occasionally interspersed; and the following deserves to be quoted.

— remarked, that Valentine might very properly spend some moments of regret over the ruined remains of that noble edifice, and that he might well bestow some praises and admiration on those ancient manners. You may indulge, said he, in the thought, that the lord of this mansion and domain was once as a good prince and father to the district around; that he attended to the wants of his dependants, relieved their distresses and their age, and using rightly the power he held over them, made it productive of the blessings of order, and of a just obedience; and, added he, it is no light commendation to say, that this was not improbable. Do not think, continued he, addressing himself to Edward, that I mean to disparage the privileges you are so pleased with; but you may probably find, that the vices of mankind obstruct very much the advantages that might arise from them. Opportunities of wealth and consequence are now indeed laid open to the lower orders of men, but a larger inlet is also made to the pernicious thirst of gain, with all the fraudulent and envious methods employed to acquire and increase it; nor, in the usual state of their minds, are such persons likely to be very skilful in the disposition and management of independence, and in the untroubled conduct of themselves, in forming their manners, or exercising their opinions. Many amiable and honest qualities hold an alliance with poverty and subjection. You will also find, added he, that there is still a poorer sort, and that their subjection may be more miserable than it was before. The cottages, the families, the domestic education, and comforts, of such who live now under men of upstart substance, and of the lowest order, are not likely to become objects of their master's

ter's attention, since they are not the objects of their interest. If, added he, the lord of this place had a liberal pride in seeing the little buildings on his domain neat and commodious; if he had, from the more improved bias of a cultivated mind, a zeal in establishing some small seminaries for the children of his dependants; if he took their sturdy boys into his service, and settled others in trade, or in wedlock; if the reprobate and audacious in society were sure of punishment from the immediate power they were under; and if they are now set at large from every restraint but where the law, which is exercised about crimes more open, and detrimental only to the property of others, fastens it upon them; the present race will have something to envy in those ancient times and manners.'

The author has made some apology for cloathing his precepts in the dress of fancy; but we think it was unnecessary. The little narrative interspersed shews no inconsiderable acquaintance with the heart; and, if the author had followed it still farther, and evinced the force of his precepts by other errors of conduct, his work might have been more useful.

A Defence of Mr. Boswell's Journal of a Tour to the Hebrides.
8vo. 1s. Swift.

When we reviewed the Remarks, their number, and the imbecility of the attack, induced us to suspect that it was one of those friendly efforts, designed to keep the shuttlecock from falling: our author thinks otherwise, and eagerly opposes the criticisms of the remarker. As we examined the Journal with freedom, at some length, we need not resume the subject; and it will be less necessary, as the feelings of the reader will discover faults which reason cannot excuse, or eloquence enforce: we may also add, that Mr. Boswell's work has already obtained its proper rank in the scale of public estimation. That gentleman is indeed fortunate in his champion: the defender enforces his arguments with spirit, energy, and good sense. We are much pleased with his zeal for the cause of truth, and the manly rational piety which he occasionally discovers. But the subject has been so long the common theme, that no ingenuity can render it pleasing; and we sincerely hope that the contending pens may now rest from their labours.

Delectus Sententiarum & Historiarum, in Usum Tironum accommodatus. 12mo. 2s. Bathurst.

'In travelling the road to Latin literature, the maturer reader will often be pleased in recognizing the companions of his youth.' We can fully assent to the truth of this proposition, for we have read this collection with much pleasure, and can cheerfully join with the author in thinking it generally useful. It is selected with much care; the minutest examples are strictly classical; and the learner is led to the more intricate rules of
2 syntax,

syntax, by steps so slight as to be almost imperceptible. It may appear an uncommon remark, that the union of two words only will betray an ignorance in classical knowledge; for, though they may be allowed in some cases to be used together, the composer's design will show that he has unskillfully selected them. Pope objected to 'amor publicus;' and with reason; though his answer, on the authority of Ainsworth, being produced, was rather a witty evasion than a solid observation.

For the reasons which the compiler has produced, we think this *Delectus* was greatly wanted, and we need not repeat, that it is well executed. The advertisement is short, but so clear and exact, that it gives a very favourable specimen of the author's talents as a teacher.

The Will which the Law makes: or, how it disposes of a Person's Estate, in Case he dies without Will or Testament. By Peter Lovelass, Gent. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Buckland.

This compilation is executed with considerable accuracy; but it is not enough to have the substance of the acts before our eyes, unless there is sagacity and experience to comprehend their language with exactness, and their tenor with precision. While we commend, therefore, the execution, we would not advise our readers to employ the work without professional assistance. We would follow the example of the king of Prussia, who, when he conferred on the chevalier Taylor the honour of being his oculist, strictly forbade him to touch the eyes of any of his subjects.

An Address to the Livery and Citizens of London, on the Proceedings of the Court of Common Council, on Friday the 24th of February, 1786, respecting Mr. Alderman Clarke and Mr. Dornford. By Josiah Dornford, Esq. 8vo. 6d. Bew.

Mr. Josiah Dornford has some time since started in the race of patriotism; but we much question whether, among all the under-writers in the city, he can find one man who will insure to him the attainment of the civic reward, which perhaps he has in view.

Considerations on the Necessity of lowering the exorbitant Freight of Ships employed in the Service of the East-India Company. By Anthony Brough. 8vo. 1s. Robinsons.

The territories of the East-India company being so extensive, and so great the number of persons employed in their civil and commercial departments, it is not surprising that many charges of delinquency should be exhibited against their servants in that quarter: but our astonishment cannot fail of being excited, on finding any unfavourable imputation affixed to the conduct of the directors, whose duty it is, not only to administer the
affairs

affairs of the company with wisdom and prudence, but to set an example of fidelity and uprightness to all who are under their authority.

According to the facts stated in the pamphlet now before us, it appears, that in the importation of thirty thousand tons, which is said to be the whole annual tonnage of the East India company, a very large sum is squandered away every year. Enormous as this embezzlement is, we are informed, that instead of preventing its increase, the persons by whom it has been established have lately deliberated, whether they should not augment it with the annual sum of sixty thousand pounds, by imposing an additional freight of two pounds per ton on every vessel.

Mr. Brough observes, that in the Report of the Committee of Secrecy of the House of Commons, in 1772, it appeared, upon the evidence of a very able professional gentleman, who is still in the company's service, that one-third of the sum then paid for freight and demurrage might be saved; that the China goods might be brought home for twenty pounds per ton, and the Coast and Bay goods at twenty-two pounds per ton; and that by a new system of ships, a farther considerable saving in the freight might still be made. Mr. Brough, convinced of the prodigious embezzlement in this article of the company's expenditure, has offered to the court of directors to diminish about one-fifth of the present freight; to build eighty ships, on a less system, at his own expence; to import the whole tonnage, in case the present ship-owners should obstinately refuse to lower their present rates; and to produce good security for the performance of these engagements. He has, it seems, intimated to them that, by accepting his offer, they will save a hundred and fifty thousand pounds per annum; and demonstrated that the savings may shortly amount to two hundred and sixty thousand pounds, in consequence of a plan which he has lately delivered to the board.

Two objections, we find, have been alledged against the plan proposed by Mr. Brough. One relates to the ship-owners, who have hitherto been serviceable to the company; the other is concerning the measurement of the ships to be employed in its service. But both these objections are answered by Mr. Brough in so clear and satisfactory a manner, that we should imagine the directors cannot long hesitate about adopting a plan, so strongly recommended by every economical consideration, and so highly advantageous to the company.

The late Measures of the Ship-owners in the Coal-Trade fully examined, in a Letter to the Right Honourable William Pitt. 8vo. 14. 6d. Robinsons.

The avowed purpose of this writer is to vindicate the measures of the people employed in the coal-trade, the motives of whose

whose conduct last year, he thinks, have never been sufficiently understood. In prosecuting the subject, he traces those measures from their origin; and affirms that they arose from no unfair motives in the ship-owners, but from the necessity alone of their circumstances. He next examines the measures themselves, particularly with regard to the propriety and equity of their application; contending that they were not only just in their nature, but that no other could have been substituted which were so fair and moderate. On a subject of this kind, it is impossible to form any decided opinion, without a perfect knowledge of the facts and arguments advanced on both sides of the dispute. We can, therefore, only say that this author writes with plausibility, and is a zealous advocate for the party whose cause he espouses.

Apology for Negro Slavery; or, the West-India Planters vindicated from the Charge of Inhumanity. By the Author of Letters to a Young Planter. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Strachan.

The Rev. Mr. Ramsay's Essay on this subject has given rise to several opponents, some of whom have treated him with an illiberality extremely inconsistent with the character of disinterested writers; and none of them has produced any well attested facts to invalidate the representation laid before the public by that gentleman. The author of the present pamphlet has avoided the scurrility of some of the former productions on this subject; but he advances few additional arguments or observations which may not be easily repelled.

Grammaticæ Questiones; or a Grammatical Examination, by Question only: for the Use of Schools, &c. By the Rev. N. Morgan. 12mo. Second Edit. 1s. 8d. Pote.

The common method of teaching the Latin Grammar by question and answer, is generally admitted to be the most suitable to boys at an early age, and in the first stage of instruction. But so far are we from approving of a perseverance in such a mode, that we think the method, by question only, is infinitely better calculated for conveying a thorough acquaintance with the language, by substituting reflection in place of rote, which is only a mechanical exercise, and an extremely precarious tenure in any mental acquirement, whether of language or science. We, therefore, are of opinion, that for the attempt towards introducing this method into schools, Mr. Morgan is entitled to approbation.



T H E

CRITICAL REVIEW.

For A P R I L, 1786.

Chemical Essays. By R. Waisor, D.D. F.R.S. and Regius Professor of Divinity in the University of Cambridge. Vol. IV. Small 8vo. 6s. Cadell.

IN our Fifty-fifth Volume, p. 260, we reviewed, with great regret, the third collection of the bishop's *Chemical Essays*, as they seemed to contain the last words of an instructive and entertaining author, who had brought an abstruse science within the view of the uninformed, and had adorned its facts with an elegant and popular language. But though professedly the last words, the favourite science possessed too great an influence in his breast: it was the idol of his heart, which he resigned unwillingly, not without 'a longing lingering look:' it was the parting of two fond lovers, who resolve only to see each other once more, for one little moment, to speak one short word, and then——In fact these little fits of irresolution seem to have produced the volume before us, and this *must* be the last; for the bishop, sacrificing to 'episcopal decorum,' has burnt his manuscripts, and resigns himself wholly to pastoral cares. Though we regret the public loss, yet we approve of the motive: like the friends of Virgil, we would, however, have saved the *Æneid* from the flames; but, from the same influence, we would have consigned it to other hands. The substance of this account is taken from the first part of the preface: the rest of it contains some observations on 'the utility of an academic institution, for instructing young men of rank and fortune in the elements of agriculture; in the principles of commerce; and in the knowledge of our manufactures.' It requires no great eloquence to enforce this hint; for many of these branches have extended so far as to become sciences of an intricate and complex kind; sciences, whose great corner-stone is chemistry, whose basis is natural history. The defect of authors and practitioners in the knowledge of these fundamental branches has confused the unconnected

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masses which we at present possess, has occasioned some facts to be obscure, and others to be misrepresented.

My own notion, indeed, says Dr. Watson, of national improvement, security, and happiness, tends not so much to the extending of our commerce, or the increasing the number of our manufacturers, as to the increasing of an hardy, and, comparatively speaking, innocent race of peasants, by making corn to grow on millions of acres of land, where none has ever grown before. Let us but once have as many Britons in the kingdom, as the well cultivated lands of Great Britain are able to sustain, and we shall have little to regret in the loss of America; nothing to apprehend from the partitioning policy of all the continental despots in Europe.

If we examine this subject more intimately, the increasing our internal strength by a numerous and hardy population, is not inconsistent with our external commerce. If the artizan is enervated, he must be fed by the robust ploughman; and the increase of our foreign concerns is, in this way, the most certain security for that more general cultivation, which shall not outstrip itself, and by feeding us more plentifully with corn, deprive us of animal food. In spite of speculation, cultivation and commerce must find their proper level, and nothing can disturb it but the rage for colonization, which has been the bane of Great Britain, whose eyes are yet scarcely opened by her misfortunes. The plausible pretext was, that you form a market which will not fail; but the manufacturer now knows, that the beauty of his patterns, the perfection of his manufacture, and the durability of its texture, with a comparative cheapness, will open a market every where, among contending, or even favoured rivals; that without these perfections, without the credit which a rich and respectable commerce can allow, gratitude or treaties are a very insufficient security. Connected with this subject, Dr. Watson adds some observations on the mode of education in the universities. We need not repeat that it wants reformation, and that this reformation must begin by making diligence and industry respectable in the eyes even of the most opulent, and of the highest rank. But we have perhaps dwelt too long on subjects so different from the contents of this volume.

The first Essay contains some miscellaneous observations upon Lapis Calaminaris, Blende, Zinc, and Brass. The two first are ores of zinc, and the last is well known to be composed of it and copper. Our author describes the calamine, discriminates the different sorts, and ascertains the cause of the loss of weight, in roasting, to be the escape of fixed air. The following remarks on analysis deserve attention, though we still think the inference of Bergman to be just.

• Bergman

• Bergman has used the same method of analyzing other substances, containing fixed air, particularly calcareous earths. He found that 100 grains of transparent calcareous spar gave, by solution in an acid, 34 grains of fixed air, and lost by calcination 45 grains; the difference, 11 grains, he says is water, which, though expelled by the fire, remains mixed with the acid, and hence 100 grains of such spar contain 55 grains of lime, 34 grains of fixed air, and 11 grains of water. I have a little difficulty in admitting this mode of inferring the quantity of water contained in these bodies; I do not absolutely deny the justice of it, but I hesitate concerning it; because, from experiments which I made with all the care I could, and which are mentioned in the Essay on calcareous earths, I found that fine transparent spar, very white marble, &c. lost, as nearly as could be estimated, the same weight, whether they were dissolved in an acid, or calcined in a strong fire.

Dr. Watson then proceeds in the History of Blende, which resembles an ore of lead: it is so called from its blinding the miners, and leading them into error; and he then relates the history of the reduction of the ore into zinc. Part of this history is detailed in Bergman; but the following is an important addition to it, in the eye of an Englishman.

• Bergman, in this history of the discovery of the method of extracting zinc from calamine, wholly omits the mention of Dr. Isaac Lawson; of whom Pott, in his Essay on Zinc, speaks very respectfully, acquainting us that he really obtained some grains of that semi-metal from calamine. So that though Henckel was the first, Lawson was, probably, the second person in Europe who procured zinc from calamine; whether he was the Englishman who, according to Bergman, went to China to discover the method of doing it, is what I have not been able to learn with certainty. Our English writers, who have touched on this subject, speak in high terms of Lawson, I suppose from their personal knowledge of him, for they do not refer to any written account. Thus Dr. Pryce says, “the late Dr. I. Lawson observing that the flowers of lapis calaminaris were the same as those of zinc, and that its effects on copper were also the same with that semi-metal, never remitted his endeavours till he found the method of separating pure zinc from that ore.” And Dr. Campbell, in his Survey of Britain, is still more particular: “the credit, if not the value of calamine is very much raised, since an ingenious countryman of ours discovered that it was the true mine of zinc; this countryman was Dr. I. Lawson, who died before he had made any advantage of his discovery.” The authors of the Supplement to Chambers’ Dictionary, published in 1753, expressly affirm, that Dr. Lawson was the first person who shewed that calamine contained zinc; we have now on foot, at home, a work established by the discoverer of this ore, which will probably make

it very unnecessary to bring any zinc into England."—To all this I shall only add one testimony more, from which it may appear that the English knew how to extract zinc from calamine, before Mr. Van Swab taught the Swedes the method of doing it; though this gentleman, unless I have been misinformed, instructed the late Mr. Champion of Bristol, either in the use of black jack for the same purpose as calamine, or taught him some improvements in the method of obtaining zinc from its ores. The testimony occurs in a dissertation of Henckel's on zinc, published in 1737, he is there speaking of the great hopes which some persons had entertained of the possibility of obtaining zinc from calamine; hopes, he says, which had been realized in England, *Ce qu'un Anglois arrivé depuis peu de Bristol, dit avoir vu réussir dans son pays.*

The use of zinc, in making the metals called pinchbeck and brass, is next described, with the different qualities of those metals, either from different proportions of the ingredients, or different countries: an ancient celt was, Dr. Watson thinks, composed of copper, calamine, and tin. The best brass is made by combining zinc in vapour, with copper in plates; by this means it is free from all heterogeneous mixtures. Many miscellaneous circumstances, on the subject, are added, particularly relating to the laws respecting exportation, and the patents granted for making brass; but these we can neither extract or abridge.

The Orichalcum of the ancients is the next subject of enquiry. It is connected with the first Essay, because it was probably, for the most part, a compound metal, of a nature and appearance similar to brass. Dr. Watson has clearly shewn, that it was generally composed of calamine and copper; but is not equally successful in proving that arsenic and other substances were not sometimes employed instead of the ore of zinc. A small proportion of arsenic, added to copper, or even a larger one, if the mixture be kept longer in fusion, produces a beautiful yellow metal, which admits of a high polish, but turns black by use, especially, if it approaches any phlogistic matter. Dr. Watson thinks, with justice, that the lapis ærosus of Pliny was not so called from its corroding quality: it was most probably an ore of zinc, which acquired its name from its being usually added to copper (æs) to make the orichalcum; but, on the other hand, we know that the native cadmia is often contaminated by different ingredients; and frequently contains a very small proportion of the calx of zinc, in some instances not one part in twenty-five. If Dr. Watson examines the tenth chapter of the twenty-fourth book of Pliny's Natural History, he will see much reason to suppose, that

that the nature of the ancient cadmia is very uncertain and variable.

It was certainly a prevailing opinion among the Romans, that the orichalcum was once a native metal, though the subsequent imitations of it were chiefly, perhaps wholly, artificial. This is not entirely derived from Plato's account of the Atalantica, in which, however, we perceive many traces of true history; but from the great work of Pliny. He evidently alludes to the original source of it, when he says that the earth is now become too effete and sterile to produce it. As the source was soon exhausted, it probably was an accidental production, from some internal fires; and, as it was accidental, so its appearance was various. The different quotations in the Essay before us, evidently prove the variety, which our author's great address has not yet been able successfully to elude. Virgil calls it white, 'albo orichalcho;' Strabo speaks of its being made with a silver-looking metal and copper: Aristotle, if he really speaks of orichalcum, mentions also its whiteness. Perhaps all these varieties may arise from different proportions of the ingredients, or the different quality of the cadmia: they may, however, more probably be owing to the attempt to imitate the original orichalcum in its various states.

On the whole, its general appearance was probably that of brass, and, like this compound, it was also sonorous.

'Tibia non ut nunc orichalco vineta tubæque
Emula.'

This passage has been variously understood, as either describing the clamps and ornaments to be of brass; or, by some deeper commentators, as a brazen pipe added to the flute. Each interpretation is uncertain; but the passage is chiefly quoted to oppose the Hybrid etymology; which the bishop has also, for different reasons, attempted to confute. It is remarkable, that both Horace and Virgil make the first syllable short, which would not have been the case, if it had been derived from the Latin *aurum*, and the Greek *καλκόν*. Dr. Watson suggests the Hebrew word *or* or *aur*, as the etymon of the first part of the word; but Hybrid derivations are very uncommon, and frequently suspicious. Perhaps *oros*, *mons*, is the true source; and, though all copper may be called mountain, yet this may have emphatically had this title, if it were mixed by an internal fire, since it would then have been exclusively found in mountains. While we differ from Dr. Watson in some particulars, we wish to bear the fullest testimony of the learning and ingenuity displayed in this Essay.

The next Essay is on Gun-metal, Statuary-metal, Bell-metal, Pot and Speculum-metal. What we call brass guns

are really made of copper and tin; statuary-metal is much of the same kind; and bell-metal differs only in having a larger proportion of tin, or sometimes a little zinc. The tin is chiefly added to make the copper melt more easily; but it has another advantage in making ordnance, that of rendering the piece lighter. Perhaps lead, as less sonorous, might lessen the sharp tone of the explosion. At York Town, when lord Cornwallis's army surrendered, the French cannon were distinguished by the acuteness of their sound, and were called by our men, from the sound, and the impression the balls made on the new works, sharp-shakes. We have been informed that the French add zinc, instead of tin, in making their brass cannon. The continental currency, coined by congress in 1776, is now said to have become scarce: the bishop suspects that it consists of twelve parts of tin, and one of lead. The best speculum metal is made with fourteen ounces and a half of grain tin, and two pounds of copper. The excellence of Mr. Mudge's method of re-melting the composition, to avoid pores, in Dr. Watson's opinion, arises from the metal being in thinner fusion. In casting steel, a bar, from this cause, will be one inch in thirty-six shorter than another, cast when the metal was not equally fluid; and this last will be found to have many pores or blebs.

'It may deserve to be remarked, and I shall have no other opportunity of doing it, that the melting or casting of steel was introduced at Sheffield, about forty years ago, by one Waller from London, and was afterwards much practised by one Huntsman, from whom steel so prepared, acquired the name of Huntsman's cast steel. It was at first sold for fourteen pence, but may now be had for ten pence a pound; it costs three pence a pound in being melted, and for drawing ingots of cast steel into bars of the size of razors, they pay only six shillings for a hundred weight, and ten shillings for the same quantity when they make the bars into a size fit for small files, &c. The cast steel will not bear more than a red heat; in a welding heat it runs away under the hammer like sand. Before the art of casting steel was introduced at Sheffield, all the cast steel used in the kingdom was brought from Germany; the business is carried on at Sheffield with greater advantage than at most other places, for their manufactures furnish them with great abundance of broken tools, and these bits of old steel they purchase at a penny a pound and melt them, and on that account they can afford their cast steel cheaper than where it is made altogether from fresh bars of steel.'

The next Essay is on Tinning Copper, on Tin and Pewter. The account which foreigners have given of our tin arises, in Dr. Watson's opinion, from their having, instead of it, examined

amined pewter, which has sometimes this name. Common block-tin is said to contain neither lead, antimony, or copper; but, when pure, its specific gravity is much below the point at which it is usually estimated. Dr. Watson makes it only 7170, so that other authors seem to have employed an adulterated metal. The composition of different kinds of pewter is next described; but this subject is commonly understood. Tinning copper was, in our author's opinion, an ancient practice. In France, zinc has lately been used for this purpose, and the coat is put on iron vessels. In our way, less than a grain of tin is spread on a square inch; but, by a discovery lately made at Paris, twenty times as much readily adheres to the same surface of copper. This subject will still admit of improvement: we remember once to have seen the specification of a patent for a new method of tinning, in which the coat was said to last as long as the vessel. It consisted in making many minute holes in the copper, and melting the tin on it; but the inventor ought to have said, that the vessel would last no longer than the coat. In a very little time both were useless.

The fifth Essay is on Tinning Iron.—Of Plating and Gilding Copper. The author gives some curious particulars of the history and method of making tinned iron plates, and the following hint, at least, deserves notice.

• Tin is not, but iron is liable to contract rust by exposure to air and moisture, and hence the chief use of tinning iron is to hinder it from becoming rusty; and it is a question of some importance, whether iron of a greater thickness than the plates we have been speaking of, might not be advantageously tinned. I desired a workman to break off the end of a large pair of pincers, which had been long used in taking the plates out of the melted tin; the iron of the pincers seemed to have been penetrated through its whole substance by the tin; it was of a white colour, and had preserved its malleability. It is usual to cover iron stirrups, buckles, and bridle bits, with a coat of tin, by dipping them, after they are made, into melted tin; and pins, which are made of copper wire, are whitened, by being boiled for a long time with granulated tin, in a lie made of alum and tartar. Would the iron bolts, used in ship-building, be preserved from rusting, by being long boiled in melted tin?

The different methods of plating and gilding copper are then shortly, and we believe accurately delineated,

The next Essay is on Gilding in *Or Moulu*, that is, with gold dissolved by quicksilver. This subject introduces the use of quicksilver in separating the richer metals, viz. gold and silver from earths. The author, in this part of his Essay, mentions the very numerous distillations of the same quick-

silver by Boerhaave; its long digestion, and constant agitation in a fulling-mill, without any other change than producing a black powder, which, by trituration in a mortar, again became running mercury. Dr. Watson concludes, by describing the combinations of tin and mercury, and their application in making looking glasses. A curious and entertaining history of this invention is subjoined, in which many new facts are adduced, and its antiquity extended beyond our expectations.

The transmutability of Water into Earth is then examined, and the best arguments, and most decisive experiments of the different combatants on this question, are accurately adduced. Dr. Watson seems to think that the water is really changed; but we are now arrived much nearer to a conclusion; and we shall not anticipate what we may have soon occasion to enlarge on.

The last Essay is on Westmoreland Slate, and various Sorts of Stone: in it, Dr. Watson compares the advantages of all the different kinds of covering on houses; but this subject would detain us too long. The following fact we shall transcribe, since it seems useful, and may be very important.

‘ We have a stone which is of a calcareous nature, and is called clunch, in this neighbourhood; it is soft and easily wrought, and when properly placed in a building is very durable; but if the position of the stone in the building be different from what it was in the quarry, that is, if the side of the stone which in the quarry was parallel to the horizon, be either perpendicular, or inclined to it, in the building, it soon cracks and moulders away; and I am not certain but the durability of Portland stone itself, may have some dependence on its position in a building, being similar to, or dissimilar from that, which it had in the quarry; and this may be one reason why we see in Blackfriars Bridge, and in some houses and other edifices in London, which are made of Portland stone, a few stones which are more decayed than the rest.’

Some remarks on Fossil Glass (Pliny's lapis obsidianus), which Dr. Watson thinks may have been found in old volcanos, observations on different kinds of stone, with their several specific gravities, are next subjoined. The Guernsey granite is exceedingly heavy; and, as it contains so much matter in a small bulk, is supposed to make the most durable pavement. The specimens, in our possession, have a still greater specific gravity, though the excess is so slight as not to deserve notice. The stone from which they were struck, resisted, however, the strongest blow, on the thinnest edges, with a heavy iron mallet, and repelled it with a very acute sound.

We shall select the bishop's conclusion. It is an animated and just peroration, perfectly consistent with ‘episcopal decorum;’

corum,' and well adapted to the object and design of these volumes.

' The analyzing the various stones which are met with, either in large beds in the earth, or in detached pieces at the bottoms of the rivers, or on the sea coasts of the kingdom; and the lodging the specimens in some public receptacle, where they might be seen by the students in natural history, might occupy very usefully the leisure of a philosophical chemist. He would find a far greater variety of jaspers, porphyries, granites, flints, limestones, slates, lavas, &c. than at the first view of the subject he would probably expect. Experimental investigations of this sort, made with ability and caution, in different parts of the world, are the only sure foundations on which we can ever hope to build any probable system concerning the formation of mountains, the antiquity of the present form of the globe, and the causes of the vicissitudes which it has undergone. It is the proper province of natural philosophy to explore secondary causes; they are the steps on which the mind of man ascends from earth to heaven: for the more distinctly we apprehend the number and connexion of the secondary causes operating in this little system which is submitted to our view, the more certainly shall we perceive the necessity of their ultimately depending, like the links of Homer's chain, on a first.'

To repeat our commendations would be improper; to add to them, unnecessary: our regret at being precluded from this kind of instructive entertainment, we have already expressed. We must leave our author then, with reluctance leave him, expressing our wishes that his future pursuits may be as successful as his former ones; they need not be more so!

A Dissertation on the Antiquity of the Earth. Read at the Royal Society, 12th May, 1785. By the Rev. James Douglas, F. A. S. 4to. 10s. 6d. in Boards. Nicol.

A Dissertation on the Antiquity of the Earth, read at the Royal Society, printed in a handsome quarto, adorned with engravings in aqua tinta, promised great information. We read the preface without understanding it; but this might have been written in haste; it might have been the work of a friend, no uncommon device: the Dissertation itself would repay us for the lost time: at least we were sure of the plates. But let our readers learn from our misfortunes: 'Blessed are they who expect nothing, for they shall not be disappointed.' Almost all our expectations were frustrated. The work itself we can give very little account of, for this very obvious reason, that we understand very little of it: we should be glad
to

to know if the author himself has any decided opinion on the subject. The plates are in some instances useless, and in others so little like the appearances of which they are said to be copies, that, what the author styles the head of a pike, we really thought was intended to represent a sheep's heart. Some of the antiquities, and some of the fossils, are very accurately represented in this way; and the engravings of medals are such faithful copies, as to fully justify our recommendation of this method of imitating them. We gave this opinion in reviewing Mr. Coombe's account of Dr. Hunter's medals; but it has not been publicly practised, except in the work before us: we hope it will now become more common.

It may be necessary to produce some proofs of our assertions. We shall select, therefore, the first part of the preface:

'Metaphysical truths can only be established, by producing effects from corresponding causes; and though we may confront such demonstrative evidence with the immutable laws of mathematical decision, we must be sensible that there will still remain some pretence for doubt; thus the basis of that knowledge, which on these principles we have been long labouring to accomplish, will become an endless toil, an endless source for controversy: and having the passions and the prejudices of mankind to combat, which mathematical certainty can alone effectually suppress, we must content ourselves only with making converts of those who have minds sufficiently expansive to listen to hypothetical arguments, without the shackles of Euclid, and the vanity of displaying their own learning and pedantry.'

We shall make no observations on this passage, for we would engage rather to explain the most enthusiastic reveries of the wildest alchemist.

A fossil was discovered at Chatham, in a bed of river-sand, mixed with a kind of clay, about twenty feet above the level of the river Medway, at high-water mark. It appears to be part of a jaw-bone, and it is extremely curious, both from its size, and the number of its molares. It is now in the Museum, which was so lately the property of sir Ashton Lever. The other bones were found also, but they are not preserved. On comparing this jaw-bone with one of an hippopotamus in the same collection, the similarity was so striking as to convince the author that both belonged to an animal of the same species. Mr. Douglas, eager to pursue all the consequences of this supposed discovery, immediately concludes, that this part of the earth was once warmer than it is at present; that these bones were not brought here by the deluge, but must have been the exuvizæ of an animal actually existing on the spot. All the rest consists of cases and data. The cases contain facts chiefly intended to show, that the animal gluten is

not soon destroyed; but our author's chemistry is so little of this world that we know not how to explain it. Even his friend Dr. Beugo, is not very consistent with modern discoveries, when he explains the chemical analysis of animal matter. We shall first give a specimen of this part of his work, from his remarks on animal salt, which he afterwards tells us were not 'intended for information.'

'Animal salt may very properly be admitted as a *to savant*, i. e. a concomitant cause of solidity, with their other principles of sulphur, and spirit or mercury among the older chemists, before Boyle and Homberg's time: the three together being always, in their opinion, necessarily co-existent under the several appropriated peculiarities of respective proportion and modification; as hypostatic principles of each sort of substance, on this globe at least; whether animal, vegetable, or fossil: which they termed their *tria prima*, and seemed to think that it was the peculiar—spirit—mercury,—or special modification of this, that gave the specific character to the other two principles, requisite also for the distinct constitution of each kind of substance, which derives its specific qualities from such combination, as they fancied, of these primary principles. Salt, indeed, appears to have been, in their ideas, the principle which chiefly afforded consistence and a band of union to the others. The animal salt—sulphur—spirit,—were each of them of a peculiar kind only specific to that order of substances: the vegetable the same; and the fossil the same; and by some were believed to be so originally and essentially, constituted or formed at the creation of the world.'

Again, a body of a calcareous nature, we find, may be produced by fire or acids. He has not explained his opinion of the constituent parts of agate, except that it is produced also by an acid.

'From the specimens of fossil elephants tusks, which I have seen in the emperor of Germany's cabinet of natural curiosities at Vienna, and in other museums, I observed that several were rendered throughout calcarious*, while others were entirely changed to the hardest black agate; the conclusion will, therefore, follow, that an immense length of time must have elapsed to have caused the absorption or decomposition of animal matter from the tusk, and to have rendered it sufficiently calcarious for the homogeneous substance with which it was saturated; for it is a known law in nature, that all bodies first become calcarious or friable before they enter into a lapidescent state.'

* * The property which the earth has had of rendering animal substances calcarious, seems to be entirely undefined by any of our learned physicians. That agent which has operated upon these substances must, in its effects, be similar to the operation of fire. It has by some chemists been attributed to acids.'

We own that we have inserted these passages to excuse ourselves from taking any farther notice of this confused visionary performance. Fossil bones, of a peculiar nature, have been very often found, without our being able to ascertain the animals to whom they belong. The hippopotamus is still so little known, that we may well doubt of the source of this fossil, notwithstanding it should be found similar to a jaw-bone, that is supposed to have really belonged to this animal. Even if it were ascertained, many circumstances would affect the conclusion which our author has drawn, and which has been much better supported by the ingenious Buffon.

The Appendix contains accounts of other fossils, with remarks on Buffon's, Toulmin's, and Whitehurst's systems; but the reader must be an Œdipus, who can perceive his views, or understand his arguments. If this paper had not been withdrawn from the secretary of the Royal Society, in order to be published, it would not probably have received this distinction from the committee:

Aretæus, consisting of Eight Books, on the Causes, Symptoms, and Cure of acute and chronic Diseases; translated from the original Greek. By John Moffat, M.D. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Richardson.

WE are not of that monopolizing spirit, which once led mankind to preserve their treasures from the prying eyes of the profane and the uninitiated: on the contrary, we are convinced that truth will be more loved the more it is known; and what mankind have not yet clearly perceived, the increase of real knowledge will inspire a diffidence in drawing its rules into practice. But in our zeal to appropriate the doctrines of other ages, and to communicate them to those who are unskilled in the ancient languages, we should not lose sight of the peculiarities of the author. He should appear with his native air: if his garments are different, he should preserve his own gait, his peculiar step, nor, with his dress, change his manners, or his meaning. We shall examine the translator very particularly; but must premise some remarks, merely because he has stepped forward with so slight an account of his author, as to render it very necessary.

The age of Aretæus, after some disputes, is now pretty clearly fixed to have been a little after the time of Andromachus, and before the death of Titus. Wigan suspects him to have been known, at that time, by the name of Archigenes; but Archigenes, though of the pneumatic sect, and a scholar
of

of Athenæus, did not very accurately attend to the distinctions and periods of diseases, for which Aretæus is particularly celebrated; nor are the pneumatic tenets very conspicuous in his few remains. The language, in those parts quoted by Galen and Aetius, is also very unlike that of Aretæus; besides Aetius, as well as Paulus, quote each of these authors separately and distinctly. It is of some consequence, in the history of medicine, to avoid this confusion: we have given the outline of the principal arguments only. Aretæus is undoubtedly, in many respects, a valuable author: his pointed, energetic, and concise language fixes the attention; his accurate and comprehensive descriptions are easily retained in the memory; and his active, well adapted remedies will still suggest new resources, or useful attempts. It is well known, however, that his work is imperfect. The first four books are wholly wanting: the translator says the first five; but the greatest and most material part of the description of epilepsy remains. Since the descriptions are wanting, the translator has omitted the cure, which has still farther mutilated this venerable antique.

‘After this short account, I will only add, that our author writes eight books in Greek, the four first, on the causes and symptoms of acute and chronic diseases, and the other four, on the cure or therapeutics. It is matter of regret, that the five first chapters, in the first book of the causes and symptoms of acute diseases, have been lost; I have, therefore, purposely avoided to give the cure of these, as it, in some measure, appeared contradictory to common sense to obviate causes and symptoms, which were not in the original, or did not exist: I must likewise observe that the fifth (the sixth) chapter holds the place of the first, in order that it might better please the eye, and have more the appearance of a whole.’

It would not have much increased the bulk of the volume, and it would have been very satisfactory, not only to those for whom it is designed, but to the more critical readers, if he had translated the whole, and given some account of the editions which he used, and explanatory notes relating to the different medicines which Aretæus employed. That we might not accuse him, without reason, of error, we have examined Wigan's, Boerhaave's, and Henry Stephens' edition, in the passages we have compared. We mention this not from ostentation, but to inform him that we have neither hastily passed over his work, or petulantly criticised it.

In Aretæus, as one of his respectable editors has observed, every word is a fact, and every adventitious ornament is diligently pruned. ‘His simple arguments are so clearly explained,

plained, that while others look for ornaments, it is enough for him to write the facts themselves. Thus we admire the skill of those ancient painters, who, with the fewest and simplest lines, without any assistance from shade, seem almost to inspire their figures with life.' Our author has translated this passage, in his introduction, somewhat differently: we do not complain that he has not inserted it as a quotation; but that he has not more carefully recollected it, in the course of his subsequent labours. His translation is generally too diffuse: it is sometimes also erroneous. Let us take the first chapter as a specimen, that we may not seem to have selected one for any particular purpose. We shall mark the subjects of our observations by Italics.

'Tetanus is a spasmodic affection of the *muscles belonging to the maxillæ and the tendons*, accompanied with severe pain, frequently with sudden death, nor does it easily admit of a remedy. The distemper is communicated to the whole frame, and every part partakes of the original affection.

'There are three different species of this convulsion; the first is, when the body is extended; the second, when it is bended backward; and the third, when it is curved forward.

'The first takes place when the patient is stretched out in one direct line, and cannot be made to incline either to the one side or the other. The other two are easily known and distinguished from the mode of tension and situation of the person affected, hence we call the reflection backwards *opisthotonos*, the nerves on the back parts being chiefly affected; but if the patient is bended forwards, it obtains the name of *emprosthotonos*, from the affection of the nerves on the anterior parts, *the name thereof originates from the tone of the nerves, and the mode of tension.*

'They arise from *an infinite variety of causes*; from wounds, a puncture of the membranes, muscles, or nerves, and in such cases they generally prove mortal, especially that which arises from a wound.

'When this affection arises in women from abortion, they seldom survive; some are seized with this convulsion from a violent stroke *in (on) the neck*, and not unfrequently a severe cold serves as a cause; on this account, winter especially produces affections of this nature, and next to it the spring, with the autumn, but the summer least of all, unless a wound, or the raging of some epidemic distemper has *laid a foundation*. It is observed, that women are more liable to this disease than men, from the frigidity of their system, but they more frequently survive, from their inherent moisture.

'With regard to the different periods of life, children are *much harassed* with it, but they are not so subject to die, because the disease is as it were domestic and familiar to their constitution. Youth suffers less, but among them death is more com-

common; manhood least of all; but old age is, of all other periods, the most liable to the affection, and death is more frequently the consequence; for frigidity, and the want of moisture, inseparable from old age, likewise the peculiar nature of death, operate as causes. If humidity is conjoined with frigidity, these spasmodic contractions are less hurtful, and attended with much less danger.

'The concomitant symptoms of this affection are the following; its attack is sudden and instantaneous upon all, there is a pain and tension of the tendons, both of the back and muscles of the maxillæ and thorax. The under jaw is so closely locked to the upper, that it is not easy to separate them either by levers or wedges; and if any one, by forcing the teeth asunder, should instill a liquid of any kind, they do not swallow, but throw it back, either holding it in the mouth, or rejecting it by the nostrils. The isthmus, likewise, adheres closely, being shut, and the tonsils, obdurate and tense, will not yield to the compression of what is to be taken down. The face is red, variegated, the eyes nearly fixed and stiff, can only with difficulty be made to roll, suffocation is violent, respiration vitiated, with a distension of the hands and legs, the muscles vibrating, the whole face variously distorted, the cheeks and lips quivering, the maxillæ vibrating, and the teeth gnashing, in some the ears are likewise perceived to move; and I have indeed, with astonishment, beheld the urine suppressed to a violent degree of strangury, or spontaneously flowing upon the pressure of the bladder.'

'These symptoms are common to all the genera of spasmodic convulsions, but each has its distinguishing and peculiar marks.'

In the first sentence there is a misrepresentation. Aretæus says that it is an affection of the 'nerves, often attacking the muscles and tendons of the cheeks.' In the next passage, marked with Italics, there is a more obvious fault. After 'parts,' should be a colon, then read 'tonos is the usual name of the nerves and their tension.' Ένταση, tension, is a very peculiar word, and occurs in Hippocrates: it occasionally means either a natural or a morbid tension: έντασιος is the Ionic genitive. If our author had looked into Harry Stephens' translation of this passage, he would not have fallen into this error; but we must, in justice, acknowledge, that this is not the only instance where we perceive that he has gone to the original.

'Infinite variety' is too strong a phrase; μυρία, means very numerous. *'Laid the foundation,'* is certainly the meaning of Aretæus, and not preserved by his best translators. If the subsequent sentence were read as follows, it would approach nearer to the manner of his author. *'Women are more liable to it from their coldness, but more often escape from their hu-*

humidity.' In the next passage which we have distinguished, 'much harassed' is an improper term. The passage, as usual in Aretæus, is elliptical, but certainly means no more than that they 'are subject to it:' we know that many diseases of children are attended with spasms and convulsions, which, in more mature age, form no part of their character. The words of the author are Παιδες μὲν ξυνέχρεις; and we ought to add, that Harry Stephens agrees with our translator. The next passage is confused, and, we suspect, inaccurate, though this might arise from some error in the pointing. We should read, 'at that time it is most fatal; since cold and dryness are equally natural to old age and death.' In the next passage, we find his footsteps in the *Medicæ Artis Principes*. The sentence is obscure; but we have little hesitation in translating it, 'Added to these symptoms, to speak comprehensively, there is a pain and tension of the tendons both of the *spine*,' &c. Dr. Moffat follows Harry Stephens; but there are authorities equally respectable, for a very different sense. The passage is *Ἑνέρι μὲν αὐτέτοισι, ἀθρόον μὲν ἅπασι εἰρησθαι*. *Εἰρησαι* is the Attic passive used as a neuter, from *εἰρῶ* or *ῥεῶ*, and can never signify any thing like the attack of a disease. It could be haste only which induced Dr. Moffat to translate *παχέος*, 'of the back.'

The next Italic sentence is ludicrous enough: the author should have written 'or hold it,' as the original dictates, and 'return it *into* the nostrils.' It would have been more neat and exact to have translated the next paragraph in this manner: we are not to defend Aretæus' mistakes in physiology: 'For the fauces are compressed; and the tonsils, hard and contracted, do not push forward the aliment to be swallowed.' We see the *isthmus* in Stephens. In the next passages, Aretæus says the 'breathing is difficult,' and the 'chin shaking.' It would be difficult to shake the superior maxilla; but our translator frequently steps out of his way for a hard word. In the subsequent paragraph, the astonishment should be applied to the motion of the ears; it is so in the original; and in the next, Aretæus expressly says that the urine is *retained* with a violent *dysury*, not *suppressed* by a strangury. We have quoted the last paragraph to contrast the translator with his author. The only words of Aretæus are *Ἰδια δὲ ἐνάσας*. *Hæc omnibus propria* is the nearest translation. In English he might have said, 'these are the general symptoms.'

This is not the only part of the work which we have compared with the original; but we have had enough of this kind of criticism. Our readers will now readily understand the general merit of the translation. It cannot give an adequate
idea

idea of Aretæus, but may be of service in instructing the young practitioner what kind of reward a more critical examination would procure. We have casually mentioned, that Dr. Moffat often steps out of his way for a hard word. We never hint at a fault without reason, and scarcely ever without producing examples of it. We will not now forget so good a custom.

'Instill a liquid,' and 'vitiating respiration,' have already occurred. In one passage he mentions the '*exandescence* of the mind:' in another place he speaks of *fomenting* the Bath fires, instead of kindling or supplying them with fuel. In a subsequent passage he tells us, that in asthma 'the præcordia are *revulsed*,' instead of drawn upward. In another place he speaks of * *rhæas* or flux of water. Again, when speaking of the cure of phthisis, he tells us that

'Milk is agreeable to the taste and easily swallowed, affords solid nourishment, and is more familiar to the constitution than any other food; it is likewise pleasant to the sight, does not *exasperate* the trachea or artery, *levigates* the throat, renders the breathing easy, is an *eductor* of the phlegm, and lubricates the inferior passage; besides it is an *affuaging* medicine to the ulcers, and more mild than any other.'

It cannot be for this reason that he mentions 'the parts called plechas,' without any explanation. The fomentation may, for aught he knew, be applied to the part between the thumb and fore finger; for a little knowledge of analogy and dialects would have led a moderate Grecian to Πιχῆ, whose accusative he would have supposed plechas. If he had, however, read Homer, he would have gone on to Πιχσῶν, which would have led him to the lower extremities, and then he might have found the real word Πιχχας, by the Æolians changed to Πιχχας. The commonest Lexicon would have told him that this meant cutis, quæ pudendis subest, inter utrumque femur. This is not quite exact; if we were inclined to fill our margin with the authorities which now lie before us, (but we hate reputation so cheaply bought) we should tell him that it meant duplicatura cutis, inter femur & perinæum, in Greek, Πιχχάδα. There are many other peculiar words, which our author should have explained. He does not inform us what the antidote named bistimus, more commonly bistinus, is, the animal called coscinos, or the gleucine oil; when a very slight search would have led him to probable conjectures. There are many other similar defects. The besafa may probably not be so rea-

* What makes this term more particularly improper in this place is, that it is used by Aretæus in a metaphorical sense, like *desuclio*, in Latin. Its real signification is a swelling of the glands of the neck.

dily found: it means the seed of the *ruta sylvestris*; and the Egyptian bacchar is certainly the *carpesium cernuum* of Linnæus, Sp. pl. 1203. It is a strong smelling plant, found in Italy, where Aretæus practised, and probably well adapted to hysteria. It must not be confounded, on the one hand, with the bacchar of Dioscorides, which is a species of *inula*; nor, on the other, with the *baccharis* of Linnæus, a very different plant. We cannot enlarge on this subject, and shall only add, that nothing is more wanting than a Grecian and Arabian *Materia Medica*, to connect their facts with modern practice, and modern discoveries. It is a work that would require great labour, and should not be undertaken rashly or unadvisedly.

On the whole, the language of this translation is easy, and often elegant; it is also pretty generally correct; but it is not the style, the manner, or the language of Aretæus. Independent of the omission of the fifth chapter, or at least its remains, we think that the cure of phrenzy, lethargy, marasmus, apoplexy, and epilepsy, afford remarks of great consequence, which would be readily understood without the descriptions. If the work is re-printed, we would advise Dr. Moffat to supply this defect, and to elucidate the *materia medica*, and the practice of Aretæus, by a commentary. A translation of his work, in concise and correct language, with these explanations, would be a valuable addition to the stock of English medicine.

Experiments and Observations on Quilled and Red Peruvian Bark.

By Thomas Skeete, M. D. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Murray.

A Scotchman once asked the famous Sylvius, in the botanical garden at Leyden, what were the properties of a particular and useless plant? Are you not from Scotland? said he:—Yes, sir. Have not you there a particular mode of torture, called the boots? Yes. I would advise you then to try the boots on it; and if it will not then confess its virtues, I am afraid your expectations from it will be frustrated. If ever this story has been virtually realized, the subject of the torture must be the bark, which has been tried by the united force of fire, water, and every acrid menstruum; but with so little real advantage, that we doubt much, should we state the instances of misconduct, in opposition to the few improvements, whether we should be found gainers by our labours. Our author has again walked over the course, on which so many contending chemists have distinguished their abilities, and, added to the usual successes, seems also to have obtained a prospect of a higher reward, of a promised land, which he has not yet reached.

Of

Of the different kinds of bark, our author prefers greatly the red bark, which appears not to be the bark of the trunk, or of the larger branches of an older tree, as was once suspected, but really a variety. A fact of some consequence, in this view, is that Dr. Skeete has found one piece at least of the true red bark in a quilled form. The common flat bark, seems, from our author's experiments, not to be inferior in goodness to that which we have usually so much prized. Many of the various appearances probably arise from the bark not having been procured from the same species, but from varieties of the officinal cincona; and the Jamaica, the St. Vincent's, and the St. Lucia bark are, he thinks, we believe justly, varieties of the second species. Of the usual solvents, he found *rectified* spirit the most active, then the caustic spirit of sal ammoniac: brandy and rum were more powerful than proof spirit, and water in decoction more powerful than any kinds of wine. In short, with respect to medicinal forms, our author's experiments fully confirm our opinion, derived from the actual effects of the medicine which we mentioned in the Fifty-ninth Volume of our Journal, page 16.

On the pharmaceutical treatment of the bark, he affords some new lights, by making the resin more soluble in water after the gum is extracted: this is effected by adding gum Arabic; and he gives some neat methods of exhibiting the medicine. These are chiefly by employing the extract, rubbed into an emulsion, with almonds or with milk*. The syrup of oranges in these formulæ would be a proper addition, for we can only lessen the nauseousness of a medicine, by adding one whose taste is similar, but whose flavour is more agreeable.

The most material chemical fact in this volume is the effect of magnesia on the bark, by which the author suspects that the solubility, or at least the solubility of its more active parts, is increased. We shall first transcribe the experiment with lime, a subject which has already been considered by Dr. Percival and Dr. Macbride:

Two drachms of quilled bark in powder were triturated with two ounces of lime water, three quarters of an hour, and after remaining together about fifteen minutes more, the mixture was passed through filtering paper. This infusion was of a red colour, resembling in a good measure that of a tincture of the same bark in proof spirit. It was remarkably *more bitter* to the taste than the cold infusion in simple water, though the increase of weight by no means corresponded with its sensible properties, the common measure of it scarcely weighing one grain more than that of the plain infusion.—This is a circumstance

* We have some doubts about this preparation: bark, in substance, de compounds common emulsions.

difficult of explanation, as it was reasonable to suppose, from the difference in the taste and appearance, that the lime water had dissolved a much greater proportion of the bark than we can possibly deduce from the specific gravity of the infusion. But if the absolute weight of the bark be not much diminished by the action of such a menstruum it certainly appears, from every other trial, to have dispossessed it of its active properties in a proportion vastly superior to common water. A tea-spoonful, for instance, of the solution of sal martis being added to some of the above infusion, immediately rendered it very turbid and *dark coloured*, and soon occasioned a *copious precipitation of a blackish colour*;

By fixed air and the saccharine acid a copious precipitation is produced, and the rich colour is lost. A larger quantity of lime rubbed with the bark, previous to adding the water, scarcely produced any solution of the medicine with its usual sensible properties. Again,

‘ Two drachms of Peruvian bark in powder, and half a drachm of calcined magnesia, were rubbed together in a mortar, with four ounces of distilled water, for the space of ten or fifteen minutes; the water being gradually added, so as to reduce the materials in the first instance to the state of a paste. The infusion, when passed through filtering paper, was found to be possessed of the following remarkable properties :

‘ 1st. An exceedingly deep red colour, superior to the infusion of common bark in lime water,

‘ 2d. It is more bitter and astringent to the taste even than an infusion of red bark,

‘ 3d. It produces a very deep black colour, with a copious precipitation, upon the addition of a solution of sal martis; while a similar addition to a common infusion of bark occasions a moderate discolouration and small precipitation only,

‘ 4th. It remains beautifully transparent three or four days, and is so strongly antiseptic, that at the end of a week, in summer, it had scarcely made any advances towards fermentation; while an infusion of bark, with simple water, will ferment in two days.

‘ 5th. It exceeds in specific gravity the infusion of bark in lime water, in the same, or rather in a greater proportion, than that exceeds the simple infusion.’

In this case the fixed air had no effect; the acid of sugar acted, as in the other experiment, with lime.

These experiments are only strange to those who are little acquainted with the nature of the astringent principle. We cannot indeed yet decide with certainty upon it; but we have collateral facts sufficient to explain those before us. It is highly probable, that neither lime in solution, nor magnesia in substance, increase the solubility of the bark, or contribute to draw out its more active powers. For the first part of the
opinion,

opinion, we would allege the author's remark, that the weight of the solution is scarcely increased; since at least the additional grain must arise from the lime. For the other part, we must quote the respectable authors of the *Dijon Course of Chemistry*, who tell us, that fixed and caustic alkalis increase the colour of astringent solutions already made and filtered: we know the same effect is produced by these substances on solutions of rhubarb; and they even change them to a reddish colour. Our author will tell us, that these are different substances; but, independent of the probability, which we shall afterwards insist on, that they all act as absorbents, the *Dijon* chemists assert, that the influence of the astringent principle on the earthy liver of sulphur is just the same as on the alkaline. Dr. Skeete observes, however, that it is more bitter also: this may well happen, since it is certainly a peculiar neutral; and when its union is destroyed, the colour and the peculiar taste disappear.

It was well known that the astringent principle had a powerful attraction to all absorbents; and this power has been frequently examined by M. Macquer, M. Monnet, signior Gioanetti, M. Fourcroy, M. Cornette, and M. Morveau, who is supposed to be the principal author of the *Dijon Course*. It is not to the credit of our author as a chemist, that he is ignorant of their discoveries, or that he speaks of the acidity of the astringent principle as an 'explanation entirely conjectural,' and to him 'quite unsatisfactory.' He has indeed added a fact to the stock; but a great variety of similar ones had been already amassed; and he will excuse us from thinking it very important, till he has found that the solution of bark, by means of magnesia, is more active as a remedy than the common solutions. Let us, however, enlarge a little on this curious subject from the above mentioned authors, which now lie before us.

The astringent principle unites both to alkalis and acids. This may afford a temporary triumph; but the union to acids is certainly produced by its being highly phlogisticated*. Its peculiar acid marks are, turning the vegetable blues red; its strong union with alkalis and absorbents; its decomposing the alkaline and earthy livers of sulphur, in which the sulphur remains unchanged, and leaves the alkali in full possession of the peculiar acid. It may indeed be alleged, that this principle also precipitates metals: we allow it; but the state

* See the effects of the addition of this principle to the different acids in the *Dijon Elements*, vol. iii. p. 407 and 408. This work deserves to be translated.

of the precipitate explains the fact: the metals are precipitated with a proportion of phlogiston incompatible with their solution. In some instances they approach to a metallic state; for iron precipitated, with some precautions, will be in part attracted by the magnet. In general, however, the phlogiston is not very intimately combined with the precipitate; though it certainly is added, since by a slight heat many of the metals are revived.

Our author, on recurring to these authorities, may find that the experiments were made with galls, and perhaps deny that we ought to transfer the analogy to bark. We may allege the uniformity of nature in her principles, the great analogy between an acid and an astringent principle, since they appear in the same parts of a plant at different seasons, and in different parts of the same plant at the same time. We may allege the uniformity of his experiments with bark with those of the above mentioned authors with galls; but the events of M. Cornette's experiments on the union of bark and emetic tartar, so nearly similar to those of M. Morveau, leaves little doubt that the astringent principle is the same in both, and probably in many others. We may just add, that bark precipitates the antimony in a phlogisticated state, and the mixture loses its emetic quality*. Perhaps Mr. Godfrey's essential salt of bark may depend on the acid quality of the astringent principle: our author calls it a very fine extract of a flaky form; but his description shows it is a real salt, and we would recommend the examination to him with these views. We ought to apologize for this digression; but the subject was important, and in England little understood.—Perhaps some analogy may be found between the astringent principle, and the tinging acid, which precipitates Prussian blue; but on this subject we shall enlarge in a future Number.

The bark acts, in our author's opinion, on the nerves, and not on the fluids: its effects are very probably of the tonic kind. Of the more particular uses of the bark, he speaks chiefly on the authority of the best writers, though he introduces occasional remarks, which shew that he has not been an inattentive or an injudicious observer. Dr. Skeete seems to offer this part of the volume chiefly as a compilation; and it is, in many respects, an useful one. He depends, however,

* We would particularly recommend M. Cornette's 'Observation' to our author. He will find it in the *Histoire de la Société Royale de Médecine pour l'année 1779*. A select collection of the most interesting memoirs in this work, now grown voluminous, would in an English dress be an acceptable present.

too much on particular cases recorded, and frequently trusts to these, rather than to the general tenor of the disease, and the more common effects of remedies: instances of this kind occur in catarrh, phthisis pulmonalis, dropsy, lues venerea, some kinds of hæmorrhages, and occasionally in other diseases. But this fault experience will cure; and perhaps, in a future edition of his work, we may find more to commend, and less to blame.

Florio: a Tale, for fine Gentlemen and fine Ladies: and, the Bas Bleu; or, Conversation. Two Poems. 4to. 3s. sewed. Cadell.

TO tell a tale well either in prose or rhyme, in writing or conversation, is no contemptible endowment, and a qualification not easily acquired by study and application. But though that gaiety of humour, so essential in this mode of composition, and so distinguishing a trait in the character of our sprightly neighbours, is supposed ungenial to our more phlegmatic constitution: though Fontaine possibly still continues unequalled, yet, not to mention Chaucer, we have many writers of more modern date, whose pretensions to excellency, even in this line of writing, cannot be disputed. Spirit, ease, and unaffected humour, characterise the tales of Prior: the imitations of Congreve, though Johnson allows him no other merit than that of a play-wright, possess the spirit of the original. Many others might be added, who, like those already mentioned, have tarnished, by their indelicacy, the laurels acquired by their wit. No charge of that kind, as may be supposed, can be urged against the present author, but we cannot compliment her very highly in other respects. Her diction is in general too diffuse; and sometimes a languid flatness is substituted for the easy familiarity requisite in such performances.

‘ Florio, a youth of gay renown
Who figur’d much about the town,’

is described as a young man of fashion and affluent fortune, a votary to the gaieties of life, without having his principles corrupted: but, to be ‘ deep in poet’s corner wit,’ and the lounging character assigned him, agrees rather with the idlers of an inferior cast, than one supposed to be engaged in the avocations of high life, and whirled in the vortex of fashionable dissipation.

‘ His mornings were not spent in vice,
’Twas lounging, sauntering, eating ice:

S 4

Walk

Walk up and down St. James's street,
 Full fifty times the youth you'd meet :
 He hated cards, detested drinking,
 But stroll'd to shun the toil of thinking.'

His fashionably sceptical friend is more happily characterized : one who

—— ' full of shallow doubt ;
 Knew the little sceptic prattle,
 The sophist's paltry arts of battle ;
 Talk'd gravely of th' atomic dance,
 Of moral fitness, fate, and chance ;
 Quoted the nonsense of Lucretius,
 Stripp'd of the charm which makes it specious ;
 Dropt hints, with wondrous penetration,
 Against the history of creation ;
 Then prov'd, by argument circuitous,
 The combination was fortuitous.
 Practis'd, to raise his reputation,
 The trite, old trick of false citation ;
 And wou'd from ancient authors quote
 A sentiment they never wrote.'

Florio admires, but continues unseduced by his companion.

' Much as he priz'd Bellario's wit,
 He lik'd not all his notions yet ;
 He thought him charming, pleasant, odd,
 But hop'd he might believe in God.'

Among Bellario's ruling passions, good eating is mentioned as taking the lead : but from this bon vivant, and all the delights of bon ton, Florio tears himself reluctantly, to visit an old friend of his father's in the country. His character is well described.

' A cheerful knight, of good estate,
 Whose heart was warm, whose bounty great—
 At Christmas still his oxen bled,
 With which the grateful poor were fed ;
 Resentment vanish'd where he came,
 And law-suits died before his name ;
 The old esteem'd, the young carefs'd him,
 And all the smiling village blest'd him.
 Within his castle's Gothic gate,
 Sate Plenty, and old-fashion'd State :
 Scarce Prudence cou'd his bounties stint ;—
 Such characters are out of print :
 O ! wou'd kind Heaven, the age to mend,
 A new edition of them send,
 Before our tottering castles fall,
 And swarming nabobs seize on all !'

Sir

Sir Gilbert, such is the knight's name, receives Florio with great hospitality; Celia, his amiable daughter, with some confusion, having been recommended as a wife to Florio by his dying father.—She supplies him daily with a plain, but plenteous dinner, not at all to his liking. What heightens his disgust, and indeed it seems an odd whim of the young lady's, though it is of use in pointing the moral,

' One dish there was which never fail'd,
Celia with this *each guest regal'd*;
'Twas simple mutton, roast or boil'd,
Sole dish French cookery has not spoil'd.'

Florio's complaisance, and indeed no wonder, since he was treated so much like an Eton school-boy, was put to a severe test.

' He scarce cou'd stand the slender loin,
But fainted at the ample chine;
Yet still afraid to give offence,
Or shock his Celia's grosser sense,
Patient he yielded to his fate,
When good sir Gilbert pil'd his plate;
He bow'd submissive, made no question
But that 'twas sovereign for digestion;
But, such was his unlucky whim,
It never wou'd agree with him.'

Imaginary banquets, and the form of Weltje, their great artificer, rise before his dreams; and in spite of Celia's charms, to which he is not totally insensible, he feels himself in a very uncomfortable situation. A letter from Bellario causes him to hasten his departure:

' Announcing the supreme delight,
Preparing for a certain night,
By Flavia fair, return'd from France,
Who took him captive at a glance:
The invitations all were given!
Five hundred cards!—a little heaven!—
A dinner first—he wou'd present him,
And begg'd that nothing might prevent him.'

He quits sir Gilbert in an awkward abrupt manner, leaving him not thoroughly pleased with his guest, nor Celia quite satisfied with her lover.—Florio, 'having feasted his mind' with the idea of coming joys, is now introduced by his friend to Flavia, who we find had won his heart by the excellency of her entertainments. He recommends to Florio

——' to show
How far true friendship's power cou'd go,'

a peculiar dish of superior flavour ; but the youth, by having eat too much of Celia's mutton, or from some other cause not mentioned, finds that he has lost all relish for these artificial compositions. He seems, however, half-ashamed upon the occasion.

' A little warp his taste had gain'd,
Which, unperceiv'd, till now, remain'd ;
For from himself he wou'd conceal
The change he did not chuse to feel ;
He almost wish'd he cou'd be picking
An unsophisticated chicken ;
And when he cast his eyes around,
And not one simple morsel found,
O give me, was his secret wish,
My charming Celia's standing dish !'

The culinary allusion will possibly excite risible emotions in some of our readers ; but we proceed with all gravity to inform them, that Florio having eluded the artifices of Flavia to ' steal his heart,' is not so successful in defending his purse, on which she levies very heavy contributions. Determined to be no longer duped in such a manner,

' He rose, indignant, to attend
The summons of a ruin'd friend,
Whom keen Bellario's arts *betray*
To all the depths of desperate play.'

Florio views his distress with horror, and passes a sleepless night, musing on Celia, and his friend's calamity. In the morning, attracted by the title, he takes up the IDLER to divert his thoughts. Bellario is announced, but refused admittance ; and he determines not to attend his and Flavia's nuptials, which were fixed for the following day. Reflecting on the superior charms of Celia, he forms a sudden resolution of visiting and paying his addresses to her ; is received with joy by the old knight and lady ; partakes of a dinner, in which

' He thought her Wedgwood had been séve,'

with the utmost satisfaction : quite cured of his taste for kick-shaws,

' Florio had now forgot to wish
For aught besides the standing dish.'

He drinks port and talks politics with the knight, takes long walks with the daughter, and perceives that the beauties of nature confute the logic of atheists. Cupid, to the great surprise of Hymen, attends their nuptials, which are celebrated on the same day that a divorce takes place between Bellario and Flavia. The inference is as follows.

' Reader !

‘ Reader ! thy clemency to court,
Tho’ long the tale, the moral’s short ;
Yet dare I, spite of critic satire,
Suppose the standing dish good-nature ?’

We are not of the class of critics who would satirize or find any fault with so excellent and moral a dish ; and to carry on this ingenious lady’s allusion, we advise all husbands to feed heartily, if it is provided for them by the wives of their bosom. They may meet with greater variety at other tables, but none so easy of digestion, or of such exquisite flavour. False and jaded appetites alone receive pleasure, which must finally end in nausea and disgust, from the unwholesome food, hashed, stewed, and disguised a thousand ways, of other female proveditors, though cooks by profession : but such a dish as Celia’s, however often served up, will, to all unvitiated palates, constantly create an ‘ increase of appetite.’

The second poem, we are told, and we should have been otherwise sufficiently puzzled in respect to its appellation, ‘ owes its birth and name to the mistake of a foreigner of distinction, who gave the literal appellation of the *Bas-bleu*, to a small party of friends, who had been sometimes called, by way of pleasantry, the Blue Stockings.’ We are likewise informed its publication was not originally intended, but that it is now offered to the world, lest, as the author modestly expresses herself, ‘ it should steal into it in a state of still greater imperfection.’ Whatever opinion miss Moore may entertain of this performance, we think it reflects infinitely more credit on her genius and abilities than that which precedes it. Though we certainly lose much from our ignorance of many characters and circumstances to which allusions are made, the perusal has given us great entertainment. Sound sense, and agreeable pleasantry, is every where visible ; and the following apostrophe will justify our opinion.

‘ Hail Conversation, heav’nly fair,
Thou bliss of life, and balm of care !
Call forth the long-forgotten knowlege
Of school, of travel, and of college !
For thee, best solace of his toil !
The sage consumes his midnight oil ;
And keeps late vigils, to produce
Materials for thy future use.
If none behold, ah ! wherefore fair ?
Ah ! wherefore wise, if none must hear ?
Our intellectual ore must shine,
Not slumber, idly, in the mine.

Let Education's moral mint
 The noblest images imprint ;
 Let Taste her curious touchstone hold,
 To try if standard be the gold ;
 But 'tis thy commerce, Conversation,
 Must give it use by circulation ;
 'That noblest commerce of mankind,
 Whose precious merchandize is Mind !'

*Ancient Scottish Poems. In Two Volumes (Continued, from
 Page 176.)*

WE left our enterprising author at the commencement of the List of Scottish Poets : in this part he does not forget his usual manner, and we discover it in the threshold.

' In the following list, the poets who wrote in Latin are omitted ; and it were certainly no loss, if all the works of modern Latin poets were thrown into the flames. When a Scottishman gives up Buchanan, who is ranked by the Scaligers, and others of the first name, next to the writers of the Augustian period, and before even the later Roman poets ; surely no objection need be made against this general censure by those of any other nation.'

Again, Barbour's Life of King Bruce, is said to be a poem, ' like the Iliad, founded on real facts.' The poetry of this author is represented to be as smooth as that of Chaucer, with great descriptive and expressive powers ; ' his information admirable, his sentiments noble and humane.' Ecce signum !

' O hou fredom is nobil thyng !
 For it maks men to haif lyking.
 Fredom all solace to men givis :
 He lives at eis that frelie livis.
 A nobil hart may haf na eis,
 Nor nocht als that may it pleis,
 If fredom fale.'—

We acknowledge, with Mr. Warton, that his strain of versification, expression, and poetical images, is far above his age ; but Mr. Pinkerton is born to raise the humble and depress the proud. We are by no means of his opinion, when he asserts that Dunbar surpasses Chaucer in humour, poetry, and knowledge of life. This is the assertion of an author who affects not to feel, and, by a regular attempt, endeavours to detract from the simple beauties of the Gentle Shepherd.

• Quid

‘ Quid autem

*Cæcilio plautoque dabit Romanus, ademptum
Virgilio varioque ?*

The list is pretty full, and contains much information on subjects which are not usually examined in collections of this kind. To the merit of Gawin Douglas Mr. Pinkerton pays deserved tribute; and the lives of sir David Lindsay and sir James Inglis are written, with a very few exceptions, very intelligently and properly. We cannot admit of the writer's excuse, in a subsequent article, for indecent language: one argument is remarkable. Nothing excites vice so much as low ideas of human nature; but if shame and infamy are attached to our origin, this must inspire us with the lowest; so that ‘those (these) nice writers, while they are preaching virtue, are, from their ignorance, opening the door to every vice.’ It would not be very difficult to detect the sophistry of this argument; but it is sufficient to alledge, that, while decorum and good-breeding have drawn the line, while virtuous innocence feels a pain from any breach of their dictates, it is mean, unmanly, and ungenerous, to step out of the paths of decency: the coward only attacks the unresisting. There is another sophism on this subject, which does not deserve a remark. ‘Decency is synonymous with fashion. Were it the fashion to go naked, it would be indecent to wear cloaths. What has sense to do with fashion?’—In spite of all these curious arguments, we must still alledge, that Mr. Pinkerton has introduced some improper poems into this collection, and that his choice will not add to the opinion which the wise and good may form of his head or his heart. His irreligion, we give it the softest term, is equally reprehensible. It may wear the semblance of a bold originality, of a spirited disdain of servile chains, and may captivate the young mind: it has captivated many by a glaring outside. Yet no one, who did not voluntarily shut his eyes, was long blind to the momentous truths of religion; and a time will certainly come, when he will wish many passages of this kind, in his different works, had never appeared. We do not now mean to appeal to his reason: it is an improper place, and it probably would be an useless task.—We wish to appeal to his heart, and to represent to him that, while misery dwells on future prospects as a recompence, while virtue looks to another world as a bright reward, whatever his own opinions may be, it is cruel to dash the cup of happiness with a doubt, or to snatch it from his hands by a confident assertion. We would appeal to him as a zealous candidate for fame, and ask him from whom he expects to obtain it? from the villain, who is unwilling to believe,

lieve, because he despairs of forgiveness for his crimes; from the forward and impetuous youth, who has no time for thought, no leisure for examination, and no capacity to feel? from the selfish sceptic, who looks not beyond his own circle, and feeling no particular wants which he cannot gratify, suspects that no superior power is required to support him? To these he must be left to fill his scanty measure of reputation: the philosopher will look beyond him as the meteor of a minute; the benevolent man will pity him, and pass over on the other side. Think, then, Mr. Pinkerton, in time! we have already told you that, with talents to gain applause, and ensure esteem, you will be looked on as the summer-fly, gazed at for a moment, and enquired for no more, if you do not forget those habits on which you vainly endeavour to build your future fame.—We must now pass on to the poems.

The first in the collection, except an Allegorical Poem. by G. Douglas, are those by Dunbar; and we shall select a short one from this reputed rival of Chaucer.

‘ Sweit rois of vertew and of gentilnes;
Delytsum lyllie of everie lustines.
Richest in bontie, and in bewtie cleir,
And every vertew that [to hevin] is deir,
Except onlie that ye ar mercyles.

‘ Into your garthe (garden) this day I did persew.
Thair saw I flouris that fresche wer of hew;
Baythe quhyte and rid most lustye (lovely) wer to syne:
And halsum herbis upone stalkis grene.
Yet leif nor flour fynd could I nane of rew.

‘ I doute that Merche, with his cauld blastis keyne,
Hes slane this gentill herbe, that I of mene;
Quhois petewus deithe dois to my hart sic pane,
That I wald vrak (wreck, be ruined) to plant his rute
agane.

So confortand his leves unto me bene.’

The next set contains poems by various authors; that on the ‘ Praises of Women,’ by Arbuthnot, contains many elegant compliments to the fair. The Sonnet by James VI. is only remarkable for having been written by a royal author. There is another of a similar kind by Darnley, published from the Banatyne MS. by lord Hailes. We shall transcribe the first stanza of the former.

‘ Sen thocht is frie think quhat thow will
O troublit hairt! to eis thy paine,
Thocht unrevelit can do na ill;
Bot words past out cummis not againe.

Be

Be cairful ayfor to invent

The way to get thy awin intent.'

Both the poems by various authors, and the next collection by unknown ones, contain many beautiful, and often harmonious verses. They are chiefly of the elegiac and moral kind; but, in the last collection, a few political ballads are also inserted. The following stanzas contain a more pointed and elegant allusion, expressed in a more expressive concise manner than we commonly perceive in old poems.

' *The Reids in the Loch say;*

' Thoch raging stormes move us to schaik;

And wind mak waters us owrflow:

We yield thairto, but doe not brek,

And in the calm unbent we grow.

' So, baneist men, (thoch princes raige,)

And prisoners, be not disparit.

Abyde the [blast] quhill that it suaige:

For tyme sic causis hes reparit.'

The Lines addressed also to miss Mary Maitland, seemingly written on a paper-book, are easy and poetical: one or two passages are not quite so elegantly expressed as could be wished, in an address to a poetess, and the transcriber of the Maitland manuscript.

Next follow, Poems by Sir Richard Maitland, the collector of the manuscript, whose life is written among those of the Scotch poets, in the list prefixed. Sir Richard's lines are moral and religious rather than poetical. Many of these are only strings of independent maxims; and sir Richard has, in one place, told us, that in these eight lines you may begin at 'ony nuke you like,' (any corner) and read backward or forward, and you will find the same sense and rhyme. The poems were chiefly written in his old age, when his sight was decaying; and some of them were dictated to his daughter after he was blind. What a beautiful subject for a picture!

The poems which follow, are eulogies on sir Richard Maitland; and his second son, afterwards lord Thirlstane. The second epitaph, by Hudson, is highly beautiful, and morally instructive. In the last line, his children are called '*worthie imps.*' The two fragments which conclude the collection are of little consequence.

The notes are full of curious circumstances; but, as they relate chiefly to the work, we cannot easily select any part of them, except it be of a more general kind. The following passage is spirited; but our author has left out of the question, the power of the whole kingdom of France, which was almost constantly exerted, though in many instances indirectly, in their favour.

' It

‘ It is here that Froisart mentions that instance of the Scottish hardihood in war, their using caldrons made of untanned leather to boil their meat, which was eaten half raw. This may rather be called an instance of poverty by some who love to reproach the Scots for poverty, which is in fact no reproach at all, if it is not produced by folly or knavery. Our London authors of Grub-street, who have not a shirt to their backs, warm and amuse themselves with railing against the poverty of Scotland; never once reflecting that there cannot be a higher praise than for a kingdom without wealth to have maintained a constant rivalry with England, at that period the most powerful kingdom in Europe. The poorer Scotland was, the more applause must be given to her valour and conduct. Say she had nothing at all, and you proclaim her the first of kingdoms.’

The rest of the note is highly ludicrous; and we ought, in justice to our author, to insert it.

‘ Allow me to add a risible blunder of Froisart, who, in the next sentence or two, tells us, that, upon entering the deserted camp of the Scots, the English found some prisoners whose legs were broken; “*si les deslierent, says he, et les laisserent aller,*” they unbound them, and let them go. It may be thought they would not go far. This ground seems indeed to be fatal to the common sense of historians. Hear Hume: “Edward, on entering the place of the Scottish encampment, found only six Englishmen, whom the enemy, after breaking their legs, had tied to trees, in order to prevent their carrying any intelligence to their countrymen.” Hist. vol. ii. p. 375, ed. 1782, with his last corrections. What are we to think? Why that the prisoners were bound to trees, but that the breaking of their legs was a mere hostile hyperbole, a figure of speech, of which a thousand instances might be given from the history of last war. Froisart is never tired of speaking of the unparalleled generosity of the English and Scottish wars: see his admirable account of the battle of Otterburn. Was the most barbarous action that could be committed, a proof of generosity? Were William, earl of Douglas, and Thomas Randel, earl Murray, men to commit such an action?’

We must commend Mr. Pinkerton, for not explaining the obscene passages; and we shall not point them out, even to reprehend them; but he again returns to his defence, though with no greater success.

In the Appendix, our author gives some account of the contents of the Maitland MSS. in folio and quarto, formerly in the possession of Mr. Pepys. He points out those poems which were published either by Allan Ramsay or lord Hailes, those which are contained in his own work, as well as those which are still unpublished, and, in his opinion, which, from the specimens, appear well founded, do not deserve to be printed.

printed. In the course of this account he gives a more correct copy of 'Christ's Kirk on the Green' than we have yet seen. The next article in the Appendix is a list of the poems in the Banatyne MS. with marks to distinguish those which have been printed. The greater number seem to be yet unpublished; but we have no great desire to see them, if we can judge from their titles. About fifty-five pieces are common to this and the Maitland folio.

A restoration of some passages in the Life of Wallace, and a ballad against the Scotch, written upon the execution of Sir Simon Frazer, an. 1306, then follow; but on these we need not enlarge. The 'Scraps concerning old Scottish songs' are amusing: but the legend of St. Serf, from the Winton Chronicle, is dullness itself. The reigns of Duncan and Macbeth, from the same source, are only interesting as they are connected with the play of Shakspeare.

A glossary then follows, and after it an explanation of some phrases and words, which Lord Hailes did not understand; and a list of others, for the labours of future glossarists, since their meaning is not yet clear. On the whole, as an editor, we think our author has succeeded well. In his Introduction and Notes we have freely pointed out errors, errors of the greatest consequence, as they are connected with our dearest interests. He promises, in different parts of his work, very voluminous publications in the same line. We still retain so much regard for his abilities, as to wish that he may avoid these faults, and render his future volumes equally instructive and less exceptionable.

Anecdotes of the late Samuel Johnson, LL. D. During the last Twenty Years of his Life. By Hester Lynch Pionzi. Small 8vo. 4s. Cadell.

WHAT! another collection of memorabilia? Yes, another, and another still succeeds, and each shall receive a welcome proportioned to its deserts. Let not the fastidious critic exclaim, that these frequent repetitions, these accumulated collections of the sayings of one man, display only an eager credulity in the reader, or misapplied attention in the author. We must look farther, and shall then tell him that we have hitherto seen Dr. Johnson through a mist, which, like dulness, has enlarged his attainments, and exaggerated his powers. Anecdotes of this kind bring us nearer to the object, and dispel the magic cloud which disguised it. The admirers of the Colossus, who gazed at a distance, may shudder at this unhallowed invasion of the shrine of their deity; but they need not be apprehensive: Dr. Johnson will retain, after every at-

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lowance has been made, enough to satisfy his rational friends. The lady who engaged to write *Anecdotes* relating to him, and began to write his *Life*, though she has concluded with *Anecdotes* only; this lady was many years his friend; to her attentive care he owed the continuation of his existence, or, what was of more consequence, his reason; in her society, many years were spent in the most undisguised and open manner; and, if we except the last cause of their separation, seemingly with unremitted, with unreserved friendship. To her, therefore, the office of preserving his sentiments must peculiarly belong; especially, if we add to her care in observing, that she possessed abilities to distinguish the propriety and the justness of his remarks.

Our readers want not now a character of Johnson; the present likeness is not a finished piece, but it is a characteristic sketch, which often conveys more information than the finest painting. We shall enlarge on the more striking outlines; and our remarks shall be illustrated by Mrs. Piozzi's work; in this way, we shall preserve sufficient specimens of her performance.

Mr. Johnson had never, by his own account, been a close student, and used to advise young people never to be without a book in their pocket, to be read at bye-times, when they had nothing else to do, "It has been by that means (said he to a boy at our house one day) that all my knowledge has been gained, except what I have picked up by running about the world with my wits ready to observe, and my tongue ready to talk. A man is seldom in a humour to unlock his book-case, set his desk in order, and betake himself to serious study; but a retentive memory will do something, and a fellow shall have strange credit given him, if he can but recollect striking passages from different books, keep the authors separate in his head, and bring his stock of knowledge artfully into play; how else (added he) do the gamesters manage when they play for more money than they are worth?" His Dictionary, however, could not, one would think, have been written by running up and down; but he really did not consider it as a great performance; and used to say, "that he might have done it easily in two years, had not his health received several shocks during the time."

It is from these, and similar circumstances, that this lady thinks Dr. Johnson owed more to genius than to study. We must change the terms. A vigorous comprehensive mind, a clear recollection, and a retentive memory, may perform, without much study, every thing attributed to Dr. Johnson; but these talents deserve not the name of genius, which at least requires, if not invention, a new and original combination, which we seek for, in vain, in the *Rambler*:

The

The lady's opinion gains additional force, from his great fondness for conversation. In his later days, we need not enquire into the reason of it; for the submissive attention with which his dictates were received, must have been highly pleasing to a mind susceptible of flattery; and, by his own confession, he had this failing. Yet, in earlier life, the fondness for conversation was probably acquired; since the recluse student can rarely attain, in his more advanced years, the qualifications for it which Johnson possessed. Besides, we perceive an acuteness, a discrimination in his observations, which are acquired only by a considerable intercourse with society.

The great attention which was always paid to him, added a severity and despotism to his manner, which seem to have been always void either of grace or elegance. For many of the speeches which Mrs. Piozzi has recorded, he deserved to be expelled from society, if he had not a power of compensating for his errors, by the moral rectitude of his life, and the cheering salutary tendency of his precepts. We shall select one or two of the many instances with which this work abounds.

‘ Mr. Johnson did not like any one who said they were happy, or who said any one else was so. “ It is all cant (he would cry), the dog knows he is miserable all the time.” A friend whom he loved exceedingly, told him on some occasion notwithstanding, that his wife's sister was really happy, and called upon the lady to confirm his assertion, which she did somewhat roundly as we say, and with an accent and manner capable of offending Mr. Johnson, if her position had not been sufficient, without any thing more, to put him in very ill-humour. “ If your sister-in-law is really the contented being she professes herself, sir (said he), her life gives the lie to every research of humanity; for she is happy without health, without beauty, without money, and without understanding.” This story he told me himself; and when I expressed something of the horror I felt, “ The same stupidity (said he) which prompted her to extol felicity she never felt, hindered her from feeling what shocks you on repetition. I tell you, the woman is ugly, and sickly, and foolish, and poor; and would it not make a man hang himself to hear such a creature say it was happy ?”

Again,

‘ The Lincolnshire lady who shewed him a grotto she had been making, came off no better as I remember: Would it not be a pretty cool habitation in summer? said she, Mr. Johnson! “ I think it would, madam (replied he),—for a toad.”

Once more,

‘ Mr. Johnson's hatred of the Scotch is so well known, and so many of his *bons mots*, expressive of that hatred, have been already repeated in so many books and pamphlets, that 'tis perhaps

haps scarcely worth while to write down the conversation between him and a friend of that nation, who always resides in London, and who, at his return from the Hebrides, asked him, with a firm tone of voice, what he thought of his country? "That it is a very vile country, to be sure, sir;" (returned for answer Dr. Johnson). Well, sir! replies the other, somewhat mortified, God made it. "Certainly he did (answers Mr. Johnson again); but we must always remember that he made it for Scotchmen, and comparisons are odious, Mr. S—; but God made hell."

For conduct of this kind there can be no excuse: but his harshness was sometimes extorted by folly and impertinence; sometimes by a deficiency in the respect and deference which he always expected. Perhaps to this irritable temper we are indebted for a more extensive acquaintance with two excellent qualities, viz. the good humour with which he sometimes returned from little temporary dis gusts, and displayed the

'Ira fci celerem, tamen ut placabilis essem;'

and that his public enemy was never his private one; that he would contend with, and speak severely of the author, while he would value and esteem the man. An instance of the former kind is the following.

'On another occasion, when he was musing over the fire in our drawing-room at Streatham, a young gentleman called to him suddenly, and I suppose he thought disrespectfully, in these words: Mr. Johnson, would you advise me to marry? "I would advise no man to marry, sir, (returns for answer, in a very angry tone, Dr. Johnson), who is not likely to propagate understanding;" and so left the room. Our companion looked confounded, I believe had scarce recovered the consciousness of his own existence, when Johnson came back, and drawing his chair among us, with altered looks and a softened voice, joined in the general chat, insensibly led the conversation to the subject of marriage, where he laid himself out in a dissertation so useful, so elegant, so founded on the true knowledge of human life, and so adorned with beauty of sentiment, that no one ever recollected the offence, except to rejoice in its consequences.'

Of the latter, we shall only observe, that, after all his violence against Ossian, he spoke respectfully of Macpherson.

Though with so little grace of manner, with so little attention to the feelings of his companions, he prided himself on his good breeding. He once owned 'that he had never sought to please till past thirty years old;' and we may add, that, except with particular favourites, and for very short periods, never attained it afterwards.

He certainly possessed little sensibility; yet his departed friends he lamented with tenderness, though, in their illness, he

he felt little; because he *affected* to believe they were not in danger. This may appear a harsh, and unjustifiable insinuation; so that we ought to give our reasons for it. The sensibility which can feel the separation must necessarily dread the approaches towards it, and look, with terror, even on the probability of its happening. But Dr. Johnson's mind was, in this respect, peculiar. His reason once tottered on its throne; and, though his mind was in general strong and comprehensive, yet, on the subject of death and a future state, his weakness was incredible, and his superstitious terrors frequently destroyed both his judgment and resolution. From the sick bed, therefore, he turned with horror: his mind had never wholly recovered from the shock it had received; nor could he escape the reproaches of his friends, or of himself, but by denying that there was cause for apprehension. Though these reproaches were delayed, they came with double force after the event; and, together with those feelings which the thoughts of the dead always inspired, produced very violent effects: few know, in every instance, the source of the tears shed by survivors.

With little sensibility, and less attention to the connections and situations of persons, he would decry the delicacy often necessary in conferring a favour. From being secluded in a court, adjoining to a crowded street, he thought free air of little service, and had an aversion to exercise: he felt little pleasure from a fine prospect, or a stately grove: the cascade suggested only the idea of the fish which might inhabit the subjacent pond; and he said, the best garden was that which produced most roots and fruit. Yet this is the oracle from whom we were taught to receive decided opinions on the subjects of taste; who seemed to be himself persuaded that his decisions were seldom to be disputed.

‘Optat Ephipia Bos piger.’

Yet let us, with Mrs. Piozzi, conclude, that if all he said was rough, all he did was gentle. He was the zealous friend of the poor and distressed, though inactive in the little offices which were not of essential service to those who requested them. His life consisted of acts of virtue, as different circumstances called that virtue forth. No mean, wretched, wicked, or slightly culpable action debased a life adorned with every moral excellence, and, if we except humility, every Christian perfection. This is Mrs. Piozzi's opinion, and nearly her own words; we shall only add our wishes, that every reader may go and do likewise.

But we must not leave the fair author without some remarks. Her work is very entertaining, written in a pleasing manner,

manner, and enlivened by the extemporaneous poetical effusions of her friend, which are often executed with more delicacy and taste than we should have expected from what has been finished with greater care.

We think the first translation of the following epigram peculiarly happy, and prefer it to the many others which follow, even the more premeditated one of Johnson himself. His friend, however, thinks differently.

' Sur un mince chrystal l'hyver conduit leurs pas,
Le precipice est sous la glace ;
Telle est de nos plaisirs la legere surface,
Glissez mortels ; n'appayez pas.'

' O'er ice the rapid skaiter flies,
With sport above and death below ;
Where mischief lurks in gay disguise,
Thus lightly touch and quickly go.'

Yet Mrs. Piozzi has her errors : her friend would have told her, that her Anecdotes were too often deformed by colloquial barbarisms, and some professional allusions, not quite correctly applied. ' It was so comical,' ' tend the out-pensioners,' ' all that I could do,' ' alembicated productions,' ' began the aversion,' with many others : but we love to hasten through an unpleasing task. If the sale of her work had not been so uncommonly rapid, we should have hoped that these errors would have been corrected in another edition ; but the press must now move faster than the pen. On the subject of the disagreement, she ' lightly touches and quickly goes ;' but her reasons are not very satisfactory : in the little affairs of the heart, we avoid an explanation with ourselves ; is it surprising then that we avoid it with the world ? It would have been impertinent to have enquired into the subject, if the lady had not introduced it, and assumed a foundation, which, in the same volume, appears to be neither firm nor undisputed.

Mr. Thrale, she tells us, could make Dr. Johnson

' Suppress many rough answers : he could likewise prevail on him to change his shirt, his coat, or his plate, almost before it came indispensably necessary to the comfortable feelings of his friends : but as I never had any ascendancy at all over Mr. Johnson, except just in the things that concerned his health, it grew extremely perplexing and difficult to live in the house with him when the master of it was no more ; the worse, indeed, because his dislikes grew capricious ; and he could scarce bear to have any body come to the house whom it was absolutely necessary for me to see.'

Again,

' I had been crossed in my intentions of going abroad, and found it convenient, for every reason of health, peace, and pecuniary

cuniary circumstances, to retire to Bath, where I knew Mr. Johnson would not follow me, and where I could, for that reason, command some little portion of time for my own use; a thing impossible while I remained at Streatham or at London, as my hours, carriage, and servants, had long been at his command, who would not rise in the morning till twelve o'clock perhaps, and oblige me to make breakfast for him till the bell rung for dinner, though much displeased if the toilet was neglected, and though much of the time we passed together was spent in blaming or deriding, very justly, my neglect of economy, and waste of that money which might make many families happy. The original reason of our connection, his particularly disordered health and spirits, had been long at an end, and he had no other ailments than old age and general infirmity, which every professor of medicine was ardently zealous and generally attentive to palliate, and to contribute all in their power for the prolongation of a life so valuable. Veneration for his virtue, reverence for his talents, delight in his conversation, and habitual endurance of a yoke my husband first put upon me, and of which he contentedly bore his share, for sixteen or seventeen years, made me go on so long with Mr. Johnson; but the perpetual confinement I will own to have been terrifying in the first years of our friendship, and irksome in the last; nor could I pretend to support it without help, when my coadjutor was no more.

In these passages where Mrs. Piozzi is anxious to excuse herself, she forgets what had escaped from her pen in the interval between them; for she tells us that Dr. Johnson, 'sick or well, required less attention than I ever saw any human creature.'—We have no language of our own for this little difference; so that we must borrow from the modern Socrates, in the Anecdotes before us. 'Whoever wrote it (said the doctor) could, if he chose it, make himself understood; but 'tis the letter of an *embarrassed* man, sir;' shall we add, as in the sentence immediately following? 'AND SO THE EVENT PROVED IT TO BE *.'

The Captives, a Tragedy; as performed at the Theatre-Royal, Drury-Lane. 1s. 6d. Cadell.

IF we are sometimes obliged to tear the undeserved laurel from the brow of a candidate, to whom fashion or caprice has undeservedly allotted it, the disagreeableness of the task is compensated by our being also able to bestow cheering smiles on the unsuccessful poet. At a distance from the glare of the scene, secluded from the parties or the prejudices which might

have influenced the decisions of the audience, we look on a play through a medium not distorted by passion, or obscured by the recollection of its former fate. We dare to tell the truth, both to the author and the audience; and may perhaps suggest the causes of failure, as a warning in the future attempts.

‘It was the intention of the author, throughout his piece, to make experiment of a style and diction different from what are usual in modern tragedy. Over-wrought ornaments, and pompous versification, he thought ill suited to the manners of those early times, in which the action of his tragedy is supposed to have passed. In a word, he was of opinion, that the language of simplicity would best accord with the subject and the characters; but whether a plain, intelligible, and unaffected style would be acceptable to the public taste, was what he had still to learn. The experiment has been made; and the author retires with the satisfaction of having, at least, intended well.’

The story of the play is the following: Malvina, a native of Lochlin, is a captive to a chief of Morven, who has promised to set her at liberty, but dies before it is accomplished. His eldest son Connal inherits none of his father's virtues: he loves her, and, after some unsuccessful attempts on her virtue; at last resolves to marry her. In the mean time her husband, Erragon, in his search after her, is shipwrecked on Morven, and narrowly escapes death, as a native of Lochlin. Connal, unacquainted with his name and circumstances, requests him to assure Malvina that her husband is murdered in a civil broil: Erragon consents to it; for by this means he learns that Malvina is alive, and a prisoner in Morven; in this way only he can hope to gain access to her. Everallin, the brother of Connal, who possesses both sensibility and honour, is also in love with Malvina, and contrives to procure a vessel to escape with her. The information is conveyed by Minla, who loves Everallin, to the tyrant: in the mean time Everallin learns that the lady is married, and that the captive is her husband; but he generously consents to their escape. They are, however, detected in the attempt by Connal, who confines both his brother and the husband in prison; but the army rescue Everallin their favourite, and he sets Erragon at liberty, who kills the tyrant, and is himself slain in the contest. Malvina stabs herself over her husband's body.

The scene of the tragedy, it will be at once obvious, is not very consistent with the events. To murder those whom storms have cast on the coast, because they are enemies, is a deed unworthy of the generous hero; and the chieftains of the western islands have at least obtained this title: so that if our author should be able to prove that they did not really deserve

deserve it, we shall feel an apparent inconsistency. Again, we hear of soldiers, and thousands suddenly crowding round the favourite 'general', circumstances which but ill accord with a feudal chief and his scattered vassals. The reader also, who has just closed his *Offian*, hears with disgust of the body-guards of the kings of Morven.

Greater improprieties have, however, been overlooked in successful plays. The sources of the author's failure are not easily traced from the tragedy itself. A melancholy conclusion is not indeed fashionable; there are few minds sufficiently refined to delight in the pleasing sadness which an unfortunate catastrophe often leaves. Our author too, though he occasionally soars on the wings of *Offian*, though the situations are sometimes pathetic and interesting, is not borne on 'equal pinions,' nor is he long supported, without falling to the ground.

The characters are the usual ones of tragedy; a sullen unrelenting tyrant, a fond lover, a generous friend, a faithless confidant. They are the same unmeaning faces, which we daily see, without the least mark to discriminate them from the general herd. The language is neat and correct, frequently elegant, and sometimes poetical, particularly where it is enlightened by a spark from Mr. Macpherson's version of the northern bard. But in general it is tame, insipid, and uninteresting. The following scene is more animated and better supported than any other. Erragon is introduced to Malvina, to assure her of the death of her husband:

Enter Virgin.

Virg. A stranger, just arrived from *Ischlin*, lady,
Intreats an interview.

Malvina. Minla! 'tis he!
His tongue would tell the tidings of that murder,
Which his hands perpetrated.—Hence, hence with him!
Let the wild ocean's waves between us roll!
More dreadful than the glare of midnight-ghost,
His presence would appal me! stop, forbid
His fatal entrance.

Minla. Vain were the attempt.
Commissioned by the king, th' assassin comes;
Whose force defies resistance. He must enter.

Malv. Inhuman! would'st thou have my eyes meet his.
Behold the barbarous hand that did the deed,
Red with my husband's blood? first shall his sword—
His sword? Yet, yet a moment's pause.

Minla. Some answer
Must be dispatched.

Malv. His sword!—ah, whither drives
The transport of that thought?—I'll see th' assassin,

Con-

Confront him ; search his secret soul ; and then—
 I am wrought up ! go, Minla ; give him entrance.
 Now for a deed of dreadful justice ! love [Exit Minla.
 Marshals me on ! vengeance and love ! hark, hark !
 'Tis Minla. She comes forth. She points towards me,
 And with her the assassin ! see, she leaves him ;
 And this way doth he move. Why shrinks my heart !
 Muffled he comes, like murder ! now, dear shade !
 Ghost of my martyr'd lord ! behold thy wife,
 Beyond the weakness of a woman dare,
 And give thee blood for blood !

Enter Erragon.

Erragon. Be still, my soul—.

Malv. Infernal monster !

[Offering to stab him, she starts back.

—Ah ! support me ! save me !

Tremendous power of Loda !—if thou comest

[to Erragon.

The spirit of my husband, from the tomb—

Errag. I am thy husband. Be composed, my love ;

Thy Erragon.

Malv. My Erragon ! earth open,
 And hide me from his sight !

Errag. Down, dreadful thoughts !
 That make my blood run chill. While I have power
 To hear thee, oh, unfold the cause. Thou speak'st not !
 Thy pale lips tremble ! let thy husband's arms
 Warm thee to life and love.

Malv. Not till thus humbled,
 I have implored forgiveness for th' attempt
 'Gainst thy dear life, and called the spirits of earth
 And air to witness, that I thought thee dead ;
 Murder'd, alas ! and at thy murderer aim'd,
 Mistaking, the rash sword.

Errag. From lips like those,
 Breathing sincerity, and truth, and love,
 Wants there another word to win conviction ?
 No, I at once behold the tyrant's hand
 Work darkly on to his infernal purpose,
 Marriage with thee. But never would Malvina
 Wed such a wretch, whom every human heart
 Must shudder at with horror ?

Malv. Wed him ! oh,
 Lived there no man but he ; to shun his arms,
 Fearless I'd plunge myself from the steep rock
 To the wild ocean's monsters.

We will not go farther : indeed we have no temptation ;
 for the hero and heroine sink into pure, domestic chit-chat,
 which appears more than usually insipid from the storms of
 passion just raised by their peculiar situation.

That

That the author has studied in the school of Ossian, the following passages will evince :

‘ And thou mournful flood,
Strumon ! whose sullen waves *gloom* round the rock,
Oft have you heard my anguish.’

Again,

‘ The darken’d moon,
’Mongst meteors of the night, looks not more gloomy,
Than Connal ’mongst his chiefs.’

‘ Ye ministering pow’rs,
Who, on your dim clouds riding’ —

‘ Then to thee,
Spirit of Loda ! my sole guardian now,
Bursts my sad soul : if at thy throne of power
I’ve bent with reverent awe, in clouded thunder
Rise, terrible shade !’

There are some speeches highly poetical and picturesque, which are more properly the author’s own ; yet as they occur only in detached passages, have the effect which he has described in the following beautiful lines :

‘ Ah, beware
These sudden transports of intemperate passion !
They’re flashes from black clouds ; and the more fierce
Th’effulgence that bursts from them, the more fearful
The dismal gloom that follows.’

Amidst cold unpoetical passages, there are some words, which are neither elegant or proper ; but they are few.

‘ He knows his power *opposeless*.’

‘ Strike, *symphonious* strike
The lyre of love.’

But we need not enumerate errors.

On the whole, we have stated the merits and defects of the ‘ Captives’ with impartiality ; and we think that the author has been treated harshly, when we recollect that many worse plays have been heard with candour, many more imperfect ones have been applauded. The style of tragedy, which the author has attempted to introduce, will not, we fear, be successful : cautious of a storm, he has too generally crept on the ground ; and, in many instances, has mistaken tameness for simplicity ; a prosaic coldness for an intelligible, unaffected style. We have, on many occasions, expressed our disapprobation of glaring metaphors, incongruous images, and turgid description ; but tragedy always requires an elevated, an ornamented language. It should be in every part a poem, raised above
common

common life; and it has been even contended, by the first critics, that where the interest of the plot is lessened, the vacuity should be supplied, the imagination engaged, by the most polished lines. If Dr. Delap reflects on this subject, we believe that he will see the force of these remarks; and we hope that, with the merit of his plays, the candour and good-humour of his audiences will increase.

The Peruvian, a Comic Opera, in Three Acts; as performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent-Garden. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Bell.

THE story of this opera is confessedly borrowed from Marmontel's 'Test of Friendship', with a slight underplot of a common kind. In many respects it is properly conducted. The artless simplicity and unaffected tenderness of Coraly are well preserved; and the integrity of Belville, who undesignedly makes an impression on the heart of his ward, is drawn with affecting, though not glaring colours. The principal error of the author, and it is a material one, because it diminishes the interest of the play, consists in the appearance of Blandford being too long delayed: if he had been introduced in the second act, the embarrassment would have been increased; but it is common for an author, who borrows a plot, to follow it too closely.

As the opera now appears, the second part, which is very dextrously connected with the principal plot, is most interesting. An uncle, whose chief pleasure is eating*, and whose chief pain the gout, has promised to marry his niece to an old baronet, who is afflicted with the same complaint. Her lover, Frankly, by bribing his rival's steward, procures his cloaths, and is introduced as sir Harry Cripplegait. A pleasant confusion ensues when the real sir Harry arrives; but these difficulties have been varied on the stage so often, that they have lost their power of entertainment. The event may be easily guessed at. The termination, however, reminds us too much of the burlesque conclusion of 'Piety in Pattens.'

There is nothing particularly striking in the situations; that at the landing of Blandford is most interesting, though at the expence of a little probability. Dry, the steward of sir Harry, seems intended as a new character; but he is brought forward so little, that we scarcely perceive the author's intention: the rest are old acquaintance. The dialogue is easy and elegant, rather than animated or witty: the songs

* In the Dramatic Persons he is called 'sir Gregory Craveall'; in the play, 'Famish.'

are pleasing, but not highly poetical. The whole, by the assistance of music, affords an agreeable entertainment on the stage: in the closet, it seems rather to be free from faults, than to rise to any great excellence. We find nothing sufficiently attractive to induce us to transcribe any part of it.

The Works of Mr. Le Chevalier de Florian. Translated by Mr. Robinson. In Two Volumes. Small 8vo. 5s. sewed. Becket.

THE translator has executed his task in a pleasing manner: we converse with the chevalier in language so suitable and appropriated, that, as with some excellent copies of ancient pictures, we are scarcely less affected than with the original design. The first of these volumes contains the *Galatea*, a pastoral romance; and this species of writing, to which, in England, we have not been lately accustomed, has occasioned an Essay to be prefixed, addressed, we presume, to miss Thurlow, to whom the translation is dedicated.

‘Pastoral romance stands in the same degree of affinity to the simple eclogue, as epic poetry does to dramatic dialogue. Each should distinctly form one compleat whole. However interspersed with episodes, or chequered with ornaments, still there should be held out one principal and main object throughout the work. The extent of the subject is of no consideration in this rule, that Nature herself seems to point out to us: for tragedy has its aim as well as epopee, and while a shepherd chaunts over his reed, there may be as much preconceived purport in his song, as if it made up a story of some volumes.’

Pastorals have more than once been called artificial modes of composition: we cannot refer them to any state of manners with which we are acquainted; and, when compared with that which seems most nearly to approach them, we are disgusted with a contrast to what the poets had led us to expect. If, from Mr. Robinson’s decisions, we consider the pastoral romance as related to the eclogue, we can allow only the scenery and the personages to be of the rural kind; for the subject digresses sometimes into the regions of philosophy, or of religion. Our translator has, therefore, confined it within limits too narrow. Even when he allows of additional ornament, and different subjects, he thinks they should be thrown into episodes, though, on the authority of the *Bucolics*, &c. we may probably introduce them sometimes into the work itself. In every other respect we agree with the translator, and think his Essay both concise, agreeable, and elegant.

The first volume contains the *Galatea*, a romance of the pastoral kind, calculated to amuse the fancy, and to amend the heart. We are not, however, well pleased with the conduct

duct of the story : it is broken into too many separate adventures ; and contending interests often extinguish each other. As a pastoral, it is distinguished by simplicity and tenderness. The tuneful shepherd occasionally chaunts his lays, and relieves the continued narrative, yet we still feel the improbability attending descriptions of this mode of life : why are the rural manners so enchantingly displayed ? or rather, why cannot they be realized ? The following is agreeable ; it is more ; every fibre of a tender heart will throb in unison.

‘ It was now time to return to the village : every shepherdess had the arm of her obsequious swain. Whether it was hazard or address I know not, but Artidorus had my hand. We walked on in silence, without daring to look on one another ; but each of us watched for the moment that the other’s eyes were averted, to steal a glance ; and if ever they happened to meet, our looks were instantaneously fastened to the ground. At last I said to him ; Artidorus, the few days you give us of your company will seem years to you, if you have left your heart behind you in your own village. I would joyfully give all I ever possessed, replied he, that these happy days might not end but with my life.—Then you are very fond of holyday making ?—Ah, shepherdess, I little care for the holydays He sighed I sighed too He ardently squeezed my hand ; I doubt I did not return the token.

‘ We were interrupted by old Eleuco, whose proposals were ever attended to with respect. He wished us to sing a roundelay, that we might return to the village with as much cheerfulness as we had left it. I not reluctantly yielded to the intreaty that was then made to me ; and was happy in an opportunity of giving some advice to Artidorus. This was the roundelay I sang, while my looks were addressed to him alone.

‘ Would you be a happy lover ?
Love you never must discover ;
He who’s silent in the art,
Knows the way to win the heart.
If your passion you would prove,
Secresy’s the key of love.

‘ Love in vain we would expose,
His purest flame in secret glows !
Love’s the virtue of the soul,
Under Secresy’s controul :
If your passion you would prove,
Secresy’s the key of love.

‘ One word the prize has often lost
That years of constancy has cost.
Hide the anguish of your heart ;
Hide the joy that heals your smart.

If

If your passion you would prove,
Secrecy's the key of love.

' Make your heart your confidante,
Conquer too, but never vaunt ;
What in fame you lose, is due
To pleasure, happiness, and you ;
If your passion you would prove,
Secrecy's the key of love.'

Artidorus and Theolinda are separated, and their meeting is of a different kind ; we shall transcribe it, as a specimen of our author's descriptive talents in other scenes.

' To arrive at the palm-tree rivulet it was necessary to quit the banks of the Tagus, and traverse some hills covered with woods. Elicio's dog, which that day was not allowed to follow Galatea, had remained in the village. He saw some shepherds on their return, but not perceiving either his master or his mistress, he set off to meet them, and found them as they were entering into the wood.

' After having repeatedly run from one group to the other, fawning by turns on Galatea and Elicio, he wandered before them amongst the trees, and raised a young fawn, which he eagerly flew in pursuit of. The timid creature scudded before him, and passed by the shepherdesses. Fear gave him strength ; and he at last arrived, without being caught, at a cavern, into which he rushed. The dog followed him. Galatea cried out to save the fawn. Every body ran to the entrance of the cave : but Elicio had already been in after the dog.

' Tircis, Damon, and the two friends, were begging the shepherdesses not to be uneasy, and expecting every moment to see Galatea's lover return with the fawn in his arms, when a dreadful noise was heard in the cave ; at length they saw Elicio appear, grappling with a man of horrible aspect ; he was covered with miserable shreds ; a black and thick beard hid the half of his visage ; his long knotted hair strayed disorderly on his shoulders ; his nervous and naked arms pressed Elicio, in order to smother him. The shepherd, not less vigorous, repelled with his left hand the shaggy breast of the savage, and with his right, bound round in the hair of his enemy, he drew his fierce head painfully back. Both, in silence, with blazing eyes fixed on each other, and intertwisting limbs, mutually strove to dash one another on the rock.

' Elicio's dog was taken up with a hind, that, going betwixt the fawn and him, saved the young one, by butting boldly off their common enemy.

' Tircis, Damon, and the two friends, flew to separate the combatants. Timbrio laid hold of the savage ; all his strength was scarce enough to restrain his fury : but Theolinda by this time had been lost in a swoon, and the shepherdesses were busy in

in assisting her. The savage chanced to throw his eyes on her; he instantly stood motionless, his horrid eyes fixed on her pale countenance. Suddenly disengaging himself from Timbrio's arms, he seized on the fawn, fell on his knees before Theolinda, and presented it to her with a kind of tender submission.

'The shepherdes had hardly recovered her senses, when she flew into the arms of the savage! Ah, 'tis thou, exclaimed she, Artidorus, my dear Artidorus! thou hast not then forgotten thy loved Theolinda! At the name of Theolinda, Artidorus changed colour: he rose, and looking wildly at the shepherdes—Theolinda! said he—she deceived me!—I remember her—is she here?—Do you know her? Yes, answered the shepherdes, with a trembling voice; she is here; she lives for thee alone. Harkee, said Artidorus, interrupting her with a low voice, you must bring me to her; I mean to upbraid her for her perfidy, and tell her I do not any longer love her: then we shall return, and inhabit my cavern; you shall be my friend, and I will give you my fawn. Theolinda, by this discourse, saw that anxiety and grief had robbed the unfortunate Artidorus of his reason; she looked at him; she wept; and pressing his hand to her heart, in the tenderest manner, indeed I will, she said; I will never more leave you; to the last hour of my life, I will live with you. I hope I shall convince you that Theolinda was not guilty. Saying this, she took an arm of Artidorus, and drew him on with her towards the palm-tree rivulet. The hind and the fawn followed them, the other shepherds went at some little distance, impatient to know how this adventure should end.'

We need scarcely inform our readers of the termination. Artidorus recovers his reason; and the whole ends happily, by mutual explanations. This is not, however, the principal story; we have selected it, as it affords different kinds of description, and consequently a more varied specimen of the author's abilities. We have already hinted, that no one story is brought forward so far as to form a principal object, to fix the attention, or strongly interest the reader. On this account, we shall give no analysis of the several adventures.

The second volume contains Characteristic Romances, viz. separate adventures, supposed to characterise the manners of different nations. They display the author's fancy in a more striking light than the *Galatea*; nor are they less powerful proofs of his tenderness and humanity. We regret that he has applied no series of adventures to discriminate the Englishman. On the whole, we thank the translator for his pleasing present, which will add to the stock of at least harmless, probably profitable, amusement.

History

History of Ancient Greece. (Concluded, from page 169.)

IN the beginning of the second volume we meet with a striking instance of that rhetorical and exuberant style, which we remarked in the conclusion of our former review of this work. Speaking of the disasters which befel the Athenians at Syracuse, 'In one rash enterprise, says the author, they lost their army, their fleet, the prudence of their experienced generals, and the *flourishing* vigour of their *manly* youth.' A writer, untainted with affectation, would have expressed this idea, plainly, by 'the flower of their youth;' but Dr. Gillies, mistaking false ornament for splendor, betrays in historical composition that vitiated taste which is always fond of deviating from simplicity of style, and has been reprobated by every judicious critic.

Another species of affectation, but perhaps more excusable than the former, there are innumerable opportunities of observing in the course of this work; we mean that of an acquaintance with the Greek language. Dr. Gillies, not content with referring to the authority of ancient writers, almost always quotes the passage, however unimportant, and though the words admit of no ambiguity. This is an expedient so common with the unlearned, and at the same time so pedantic, that it ought to be very sparingly used by every writer who would avoid the suspicion of being a smatterer. The blemish which we now censure is necessarily confined to the notes; but the text is too intimately connected with them to escape the infection.

When the words of ancient writers are cited by a historian, we might expect that, whatever were his own propensity to depart from the natural modes of expression, he would at least be careful to deliver their ideas with accuracy. Even in this respect, however, we are sorry to find the author before us extremely deficient. Let the following instance serve as an example. Arrian says, Οὐ γινώσκοντες τὰ ὄντα, τὰ μάλιστα καὶ ἡδονὴν σφισιν εἰλαζόν. Vol. ii. p. 569. The plain sense of this passage is, that, not knowing what had happened, they conjectured what was most agreeable to them. But Dr. Gillies, with that affected elegance which characterises his interpretations, gives the version in this manner: 'not knowing the truth, hope regulated their conjectures.' Short as is this sentence, we cannot avoid observing, that it is so inartificially constructed, as scarcely to be consistent with the rules of grammar. For the words 'not knowing,' instead of referring to people, which is the idea in the original, can, with propriety of syntax, be only applied to hope.

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The tragical fate of Socrates is a conspicuous event in the Grecian history, and this author has related it with the circumstances usually mentioned; but we are surprised to find that, on an occasion so worthy of the panegyrical talents of a historian, he has entirely omitted to delineate the character of this celebrated person. Dr. Gillies, by a preposterous arrangement of the work, had anticipated this subject, though very imperfectly, in the first volume, and thereby precluded himself from drawing the moral portrait of the Grecian sage, in that part where alone it could be introduced with propriety, or displayed to the greatest advantage. This misconduct is the more remarkable, as he, in many places, affects peculiar regard to the disposition of the objects which he describes; often mentioning, with apparent complacency, the lights, the shades, and the back-grounds of his pictures.

To relieve the attention of our readers, we shall lay before them a specimen, taken from one of the most memorable periods, and best executed parts of the work.

‘ During this long series of triumphs, Lysander never lost sight of the reduction of Athens; an object not only useful but necessary to the completion of his designs. The vigilance of the Peloponnesian squadrons prevented the usual supplies of foreign grain from reaching the distressed city. In all the towns which surrendered, or which were taken by storm, the Athenian garrisons were saved from immediate death, only on condition that they returned to their native country. By such contrivances the crafty Spartan expected that the scarcity of provisions would soon compel the growing multitude of inhabitants to submit to the Lacedæmonian army at Decelia. But the Athenians, who despised the assaults of the enemy, braved the hardships of famine. Even after Lysander had blocked up their harbours with an hundred and fifty sail, they still defended, with vigour, their walls and ramparts; patiently endured fatigue and hunger; and beheld, with obstinate unconcern, the affliction of their wives and children. Amidst the ravages of death and disease, which advanced with increasing horror, they punished, with the utmost severity, the ignoble cowardice of Archestratus, who first mentioned capitulation, and declared that the same moment should put an end to their independence and their lives.

‘ But notwithstanding the melancholy firmness of the popular assembly, a numerous and powerful party in the state was governed rather by interest than by honour; and the greatest enemies of Athenian liberty flourished in the bosom of the republic. The aristocratical leaven of the four hundred had infected the whole body of the senate; and not only the inconstant Theramenes, but several other men of abilities and influence,

ence, who had been most active in subverting that cruel tyranny, regretted the restoration of democracy to a people, who (as they had recently proved in many parts of their conduct) were unable to enjoy, without abusing, the invaluable gift of freedom. In republican governments, the misfortunes, which ought to bind all ranks of men in the firmest and most indissoluble union, have often little other tendency than to increase the political factions which tear and distract the community. Amidst every form of public distress, the Athenians caballed, clamoured, accused, and persecuted each other; and the faction of the nobles, who acted with superior concert, vigour, and address, destroyed, by dark insinuations, false witnesses, perjury, and every other species of legal fraud and cruelty, the seditious Cleophon, and other turbulent demagogues, who might most effectually have opposed their measures.

When these obstacles were removed, Theramenes (whose recent merit prevented the suspicion of the assembly) proposed an embassy to Lacedæmon, which should request a suspension of hostilities, and obtain, if possible, some moderate terms of accommodation. He named himself, with nine colleagues, as the persons best qualified to undertake this important commission; flattering the people in the clearest and least ambiguous terms, with an undoubted prospect of success. A decree was immediately passed, investing the ambassadors with full powers. They assumed the sacred badge of their inviolable character, reached in safety the Spartan camp, held a conference with king Agis, and afterwards repaired to the Lacedæmonian capital. During four months they carried on their pretended negotiation with the senate, the kings, the ephori, and especially with Lyfander, whose authority, being unknown to the ancient constitution of Sparta, was far more extensive than that of all the other magistrates together. With him, principally, the plan was concerted for compelling the Athenians to submit to terms of peace, which they must have regarded as worse, not only than war, but death. The fortifications of their harbours were to be demolished, as well as the long walls which joined them with the city: they were to surrender all their ships but twelve; to resign every pretension to their ancient possessions in foreign parts; to recal from banishment the surviving members of the late tyrannical aristocracy; to follow the standard of Sparta in war; and, in peace, to mould their political constitution after the model which that victorious republic might think fit to prescribe.

When Theramenes produced these unexpected fruits of his boasted negotiation, the Athenians had no longer either strength or spirit to resist, or even courage to die. During the long absence of their ambassadors, the siege had been carried on with redoubled vigour. The Lacedæmonians, reinforced by the Thebans as well as by their numerous allies of Peloponnesus, had invested the city on every side, the harbours were closely

blocked up by Lyfander, who had become master of Melos, Ceos, Ægina, and Salamis; islands so near to Athens, that they were almost regarded as a part of the Attic territory. The greatest misery prevailed within the walls; the famine was intolerable, and the diseases more intolerable than the famine. The full period of thrice nine years had elapsed, which, if we may credit a most accurate and faithful historian, had been assigned by repeated oracles and predictions, as the destined term of the Peloponnesian war, and of the Athenian greatness. The principal leaders of the democracy had been cut off by the perfidious snares of their opponents, who were prepared to bear a foreign yoke, provided they might usurp domestic tyranny. That odious faction was ready to approve the measures of Theramenes, who might intimidate the dejected assembly by declaring (a most melancholy truth) that the severity of the Lacedæmonians, excessive as it seemed, was yet moderation and lenity when compared with the furious and unextinguishable rage of the Thebans and Corinthians, who maintained that the Athenians deserved not any terms of accommodation; that their crimes ought to be persecuted with unrelenting vengeance; their proud city demolished with such perfect destruction, that not even its vestige should remain; and the insolent inhabitants utterly extirpated from Greece, which they had so long disturbed by their ambition, and provoked by their tyranny and cruelty. Such an argument Theramenes might have employed, if it had been necessary to employ any argument, to justify his negotiation with the Spartans, which was confirmed and ratified by the voice of the aristocratical cabal, and submitted to, rather than accepted, by the majority of the assembly, with the gloomy silence of despair.

On the sixteenth of May, the day on which the Athenians had been accustomed to celebrate the anniversary of the immortal victory of Salamis, the hostile armament took possession of their harbours; the combined army entered their gates. The walls and fortresses of the city of Minerva, which the generous magnanimity of its inhabitants, preferring the public safety to their own, had abandoned, in defence of Greece, to the fury of a barbarian invader, were ungratefully levelled to the ground, by the implacable resentment of the Greeks; who executed their destructive purpose with all the eagerness of emulation; boasting, amidst the triumphs of martial music, that the demolition of Athens would be regarded, in succeeding ages, as the true æra of Grecian freedom. Yet after they had satisfied their vengeance, they seemed to regret its effects. The day was concluded with a magnificent festival, in which the recitation of the poem formed, as usual, the principal ornament of the entertainment. Among other pieces was rehearsed the *Electra* of Euripides, and particularly that affecting chorus, "We come, O daughter of Agamemnon! to thy sulcic and humble roof." The words were scarcely uttered, when

when the whole assembly melted into tears, the forlorn condition of that young and virtuous princess, expelled the royal palace of her father, and inhabiting a miserable cottage, in want and wretchedness, recalling the dreadful vicissitude of fortune which had befallen Athens, once mistress of the sea, and sovereign of Greece, but deprived, in one fatal hour, of her ships, her walls, and her strength; and reduced from the pride of power and prosperity, to misery, dependence, and servitude, without exerting one memorable effort to brighten the last moment of her destiny, and to render her fall illustrious.'

The conclusion of this extract affords an additional instance how much Dr. Gillies is inclined to tautological amplification, in reciting the disasters of Athens. He even seems to dwell with pleasure on the subject. As if subjection to *servitude* had not been sufficient to express her melancholy situation, he judged it indispensable, however unnecessary, to charge the picture with *dependence*. But why, since he loves antitheses, did he not contrast the *pride* of power with the *humiliation* of servitude? And why has he omitted to mention in his climax the loss of *liberty*, which was held by the Athenians as the noblest possession they could enjoy? He thought, perhaps, that had he admitted liberty, he could not so properly employ servitude, to which he was determined to reduce them.

Dr. Gillies affects to imitate the conciseness of Thucydides, without possessing the vigour, the perspicuity, and judgment, of that admired author. The Greek historian paints his subjects with a bold and discriminating hand; but the modern scatters his flimsy though glaring lights and shades, with equal capriciousness and indiscretion.

This author endeavours to represent the character of Dionysius, the tyrant of Syracuse, in a much more favourable light than that in which it has been transmitted by ancient writers. A few observations, indeed, may seem to countenance the conjecture; but Dr. Gillies's opinion is the less admissible, as it is partly, and even erroneously founded upon the authority of Polybius and Scipio Africanus, who have only said, 'That none ever concerted his schemes with more prudence, or executed them with more boldness, than Dionysius the Elder.' These qualities are so far from being decisive with regard to the moral character of Dionysius, against the general evidence of history, that they have been conspicuous in many of the most avowed tyrants that ever lived. But this is not the only instance in which the doctor has, upon no better foundation, attempted to violate the distributive justice of history.

The expedition of the Greeks, under the command of

Xenophon, forms an interesting narrative, as related by that masterly writer; but we cannot help thinking, that the minute account of it, given by the author now under consideration, was unnecessary in a general history of Greece; and it certainly occasions a very unfavourable comparison between the substitute and the beautiful original.

The subsequent, as well as the antecedent events of the Grecian history being so well known, and copied by Dr. Gillies from the usual authorities, afford but little subject for remark: we shall, therefore, only observe, that he has adopted an opinion concerning the character of Alexander, more conformable to the prejudices of Arrian, than consistent with the general sentiments both of ancient and modern historians. We do not find, notwithstanding his very *modest* assertion in the preface, that the concatenation of seemingly detached events has received any satisfactory light from his boasted researches. Indeed, the insinuation of such an effect, in an age so remote from the times of Grecian liberty, must tend rather to excite a suspicion of artifice, than to evince the penetration of any author, unacquainted with more complete historical documents than are extant of that country. Besides, we must confess, that we are not so well satisfied with this author's information, or the justness of his ideas, as to give much credit to his conjectures, where the evidence of ancient writers is either obliterated or obscure.

The sentiments we have now expressed will be sufficiently justified by the sequel.

In a note, in the first volume of this work, page 183, Dr. Gillies cites the following passage from Herodotus, who read his history at the Olympic games, 444 years before the Christian æra: 'Homer and Hesiod lived about four hundred years ago; not more: and these are the poets who composed a Theogony for the Greeks; who assigned to the gods their respective appellations and epithets; distinguished their several forms, and defined the arts in which they excelled, and the honours to which they were entitled. As to the poets who are supposed to have preceded them, I am of opinion that they flourished in a later age.'

Without making any remark on the opinion of Herodotus, let us now attend to Dr. Gillies, who expresses himself in the subsequent terms: 'The preceding note proves the ignorance of Herodotus and his contemporaries, concerning the history of their ancient bards; since of these venerable fathers of the Grecian religion and policy, two are mentioned by Homer himself: Linus, in the description of the shield of Achilles, II, 18; Melampus, in the fifteenth book of the Odyssey.'

We . .

We shall first examine the foundation of this author's remark in respect of Linus. The following is the passage in the Iliad to which he refers :

Εν δ' ἐτίθει σαφυλῆσι μέγα βρίθυσαν ἀλῶν,
 Καλὴν, χρυσεῖν' μέλανες δ' ἀνὰ βότρυες ἦσαν·
 Ἐσῆκει δὲ κάμαξί· διαμπερές ἀργυρέησιν.
 Ἀμφὶ δέ, κυανέην κάπελον πύρι δ' ἔρκ' ἔλασσε
 Κασσίτερον· μία δ' οἷη ἀταρπυλὸς ἦεν ἐπ' αὐτὴν,
 Τῇ νίσσονιο Φορῆες, ὅτε τρυγῶνεν ἀλῶν.
 Παρθενικαὶ δὲ καὶ ἡθελαι, ἀταλαὶ φρονέουσαι,
 Πλεκτοῖς ἐν ταλάροισι φέρον μελιηδέα καρπόν.
 Τοῖσιν δ' ἐν μίσσοισι παῖς Φόρμιγλι λιγυρήν
 Ἰμερόεν κιθάριζε· λίνον δ' ὑπο καλὸν αἶδε
 Λεπταλήν Φωνή· τοὶ δὲ ῥήσσοντες ὁμαρῶν
 Μολπῇ τ', ἰὺγμῶ τε, ποσὶ σκαίροντες ἔπουλο.

‘ Next ripe in yellow gold a vineyard shines,
 Bent with the pond’rous harvest of its vines ;
 A deeper dye the dangling clusters show,
 And curl’d on silver props, in order glow :
 A darker metal mix’d, intrench’d the place,
 And plates of glitt’ring tin th’ inclosure grace.
 To this one path-way gently winding leads,
 Where march a train with baskets on their heads,
 (Fair maids, and blooming youths) that smiling bear
 The purple product of th’ autumnal year.
 To these a youth awakes the warbling strings,
 Whose tender lay the fate of Linus sings ;
 In measur’d dance behind him move the train,
 Tune the soft voice, and answer to the strain.’

Pope.

The opinion that Homer here mentions the poet Linus, rests entirely upon a passage in Pausanias (lib. ix. cap. 29.) which is merely conjectural, founded upon no evidence, supported by no argument, and therefore of no authority for establishing the point in question. Mr. Pope, in his translation, has adopted the same idea ; but being taken from Pausanias, it can be entitled to no greater regard than that of its original author. It is, likewise, not more unsatisfactory in respect of its foundation than inconsistent with the context. The part above extracted from Homer describes a scene of festivity, in which young men and maids are employed in singing and dancing, to the music of a youth who plays on his harp (according to Mr. Pope) the fate of Linus. The fate of this ancient bard, we are told, was tragical. He is said to have been killed by a blow on the head from Hercules, for

laughing at that hero's awkwardness in reciting a song. Is it then consistent with probability, not only that the youth who played on the harp should strike up no other piece of music than an elegiac composition; but that the whole company should sing and dance to strains so repugnant to gaiety; and all this at a time when they were *αταλαφρονεοντες*, indulging themselves in youthful thoughts; a disposition of mind very faintly expressed by *smiling*, and for which we have not any adequate term in our language?

It is with extreme regret that, on this occasion, we have been obliged to bring into notice any defect in the translation of the *Iliad*; a work which, with all its imperfections, will do lasting honour to the English language. But there seemed reason to suspect that Dr. Gillies, while affecting to found his argument upon the original authority of a Greek writer, was in truth only substituting, under the name of Pausanias, the unacknowledged authority of Mr. Pope. Notwithstanding the conjecture of Pausanias, we will venture to affirm, that neither the *παθηματα* nor the person of Linus are really so much as mentioned by Homer; and in this assertion we are supported by the opinion of his most learned commentator, Dr. Clarke, who translates the word *λινον*, *chorde*, a chord or string. The argument by which he establishes this interpretation is short and decisive. 'Sed quomodo in scuto depingi potuit, *quem* caneret Citharista?' 'But how was it possible to represent on the shield *whom* the musician sung?' The sense of the passage therefore is, that the youth played a delightful tune. Nor can a different interpretation be maintained with any degree of probability.

Let us now enquire concerning Melampus, whom Dr. Gillies affirms to be another ancient poet, mentioned by Homer. The passage to which he refers is the following, in the fifteenth book of the *Odyssey* *.

Ἦτοι ῥ' μὲν τὰ πονεῖτα, καὶ εὐχίῃ· οὗτι δ' Ἀθήνη
 Νηϊ παρὰ πρύμνῃ σχεδόν· οἱ δ' ἤλυθεν αὐτῇ
 Τηλεδαμῶς, Φεύγων ἔξ' Ἀργεῖ· ἄνδρα καλαιντῆς,
 Μάϊλιν· ἀτὰρ γενεήν γε Μελάμπροδ'· ἔκγονον ἦεν,
 Ὃς πρὶν μὲν πόλιν εἶναι Πύλῳ ἐνὶ μηρίῳ μῆλων,
 Ἀφνειὸς Πυλίοισι μέγ' ἔχοντα δώματα ναίων·
 Δὴ τότε γ' ἄλλον δῆμον ἀφίκειο, παλαιοὶ Φεύγων,
 Νηλεὶα τε μεγάρθυμοι ἀγαυότατον ζώοντων,
 Ὃς εἰ χρήματα πολλὰ τελεσφόρον εἰς ἐνιαυτὸν

* Erroneously quoted in the History, Book II. See Vol. I. p. 283.

Εἶχε βίη· ὁ δὲ τεῶς μὲν ἐνὶ μεγάροις Φυλάκοιο
 Δεσμῶν ἐν ἀργαλέῳ δέδιτο, κράϊερ, ἄλγεα πάσχω,ν,
 Εἵνεκα Νηληϊῶν κέρης, ἄτης τε βαρείης,
 Τήν οἱ ἐπὶ Φρεσὶ θῆκε θεὰ δασπλῆτις Ἑρινύς.
 Ἄλλ' ὁ μὲν ἐκφυγε κῆρα, καὶ ἤλασε βῆς ἐριμύκης
 Ἔς Πύλον ἐκ Φυλάκης, καὶ ἐτίσατο ἔρπον αἰεὶ κῆς,
 Ἀλΐθιον Νηληϊά κασιγνήτῳ τε γυναῖκα
 Ἠγάγειο πρὸς δῶμαθ'· ὁ δ' ἄλλων ἵκετο δῆμον,
 Ἀργὸς ἐς ἱππόβοτον· τοθι γὰρ νύ οἱ αἴσιμον ἦεν
 Ναϊέμεναι πολλοῖσιν ἀνάσσον' Ἀργείοισιν·
 Ἔνθα δ' ἔγχευε γυναῖκα, καὶ ὑπερφῆς θίετο δῶμα.

• Mean-time the prince with sacrifice adores
 Minerva, and her guardian aid implores ;
 When lo ! a wretch ran breathless to the shore,
 New from his crime, and reeking yet with gore.
 A seer he was, from great Melampus sprung,
 Melampus, who in Pylos flourish'd long,
 'Till urg'd by wrongs a foreign realm he chose,
 Far from the hateful cause of all his woes.
 Neleus his treasures one long year detains :
 As long, he groan'd in Philacus his chains :
 Mean-time, what anguish and what rage combin'd,
 For lovely Pero rack'd his lab'ring mind !
 Yet 'scap'd he death ; and vengeful of his wrong
 To Pylos drove the lowing herds along :
 Then (Neleus vanquish'd, and consign'd the fair
 To Bias' arms) he sought a foreign air ;
 Argos the rich for his retreat he chose,
 There form'd his empire, there his palace rose.' Pope.

Through the whole of this passage, Homer has not once mentioned Melampus as having been a poet. From the virtue ascribed to his descendant, there is merely implied an insinuation that Melampus was a sooth-sayer : and this agrees with the general testimony of ancient writers ; for he is celebrated as a soothsayer and physician. We may now discover by what means Dr. Gillies has plunged into error ; and we shall endeavour to extricate him. In consulting a Greek Lexicon, he found that *Μαντις* was interpreted by the Latin word *vates*, which signifies either, a poet or a soothsayer ; though the Greek word is not, like the Latin, ambiguous, but restricted to the latter signification. He rashly embraced the former of these significations, and instantly dubbed Melampus a poet ; without any authority from Homer, whom he has falsely cited in support of that opinion, and no way conformable to the general character of Melampus.

So far as we have proceeded in examining Dr. Gillies's charge of ignorance against the venerable father of history, the imputation recoils strongly upon himself; but in the subsequent part of his crude impeachment, we shall find it aggravated with peculiar circumstances of temerity. He urges the argument against Herodotus in the following terms:

"According to Herodotus, therefore, the age of Homer is fifty years later than it is placed by the marbles of Paros. But on this subject we have surer evidence than any monuments of marble, or even the testimony of Herodotus can afford. The circumstantial minuteness, and infinite variety, which characterise the Iliad and Odyssey, prove their inimitable author to have lived near the times which he describes. He conversed in his youth with those who had seen the heroes of the Trojan war; and, in the vigour of his age, beheld the grandchildren of Æneas, Ulysses, Achilles, and Agamemnon.

"Νῦν δὲ δὴ Ἀἰνείας γένος Τρωέσσιν ἀναξίη

Καὶ παῖδες παίδων τοῖς καὶ μετοπίσθι γενώσιναι" Iliad, xx. ver. 306.

"On great Æneas shall devolve the reign,
And sons succeeding sons, the lasting line sustain." Pope.

In endeavouring to establish the opinion that Homer had in his youth conversed with those who had seen the Trojan war; and in the vigour of his age, beheld the grandchildren of Æneas, &c. Dr. Gillies founds his argument not only upon a misconstruction of Dionysius of Halicarnassus, but upon a ridiculous interpretation of the two lines above quoted of Homer; to which he affixes a restricted and narrow meaning, instead of that indefinite and magnificent sense, which most certainly was intended by the poet. With respect to the former of these authorities, the fact is, that the words of Dionysius, so far from supporting Dr. Gillies's opinion, directly contradict it. The following is the sense of the passage.

"There are some who say that Æneas, the son of Venus, after having made an expedition into Italy, returned home, and reigned in Troy: that at his death he left the kingdom to his son, Ascanius, whose descendants enjoyed the throne for a long period. Those persons must, I suppose, have been led into this error, by some verses of Homer misinterpreted. For, in the Iliad, he has introduced Neptune foretelling the future grandeur of Æneas and his descendants in this manner. "But now Æneas shall reign over the Trojans; and the children of his children, who shall afterwards be born." They, therefore, imagining that Homer had *known of the reign of those princes* in Phrygia, and conceiving it impossible for persons inhabiting Italy to govern the Trojans, *they formed the groundless notion* of Æneas's return. But was it not easy to suppose such
a reign

a reign over those Trojans who had followed Æneas, though in a different part of the world?"

Certainly Dionysius could not more plainly declare his own sentiments. Nor does he confine the period of Homer's existence to any particular generation of the Trojan princes. The only proof that Dr. Gillies has to produce for this opinion, so confidently asserted, of Homer's having seen the Trojan princes, rests upon a single word in Dionysius, *εἰδέναι*, and that perverted from its obvious and common acceptation. By this misinterpretation, he has bountifully restored to that bard the use of his eyes, of which ancient sculptors and ancient authors had too long deprived him. This, though a point which may admit of some dispute, surely is not to be determined so slightly. But the mistakes of this author are of so complicated a nature, that they are not more conspicuous in the misapprehension of ideas and sentiments than in the perversion of language. Dr. Gillies, therefore, has greatly misrepresented the whole of the evidence on this subject; and to preserve the train of his erroneous conceptions, he has subjoined, 'that the force of the criticism evaporates in Mr. Pope's translation.' That the force of a criticism, which never had any, should evaporate, is a remark entirely suitable to the peculiar ingenuity of this author; but every judicious critic will allow that Mr. Pope has preserved, in this passage, both the sense and spirit of Homer; which Dr. Gillies, by his own visionary and frigid interpretation, would totally extinguish. Virgil, the best interpreter of Homer, has given it in no other sense:

"Et nati natorum, & qui nascentur ab illis."

A great part of this work is employed in digressions on the philosophy, the literature, the state of the arts, &c. in ancient Greece; in which, as we have already observed, the author generally follows the opinion of former writers. Amidst the mass of extraneous subjects occasionally introduced, he has thought proper to observe, that the profession of a courtesan was reduced into system by Aspasia. As Dr. Gillies omits no opportunity of attempting to display his learning, however unsuccessfully, and his industry is often misapplied, we were under some apprehension lest he intended to explain the mysteries of this infamous and pernicious employment: but, fortunately for us, his meretricious lucubrations terminate with establishing, at Athens, a school of vice and pleasure, as well as of literature and philosophy.

This supposed fact, relative to Aspasia, the author has borrowed from Athenæus, a diligent collector of ancient anecdotes. But it may be proper to inform Dr. Gillies, that by
no

no means are they all entitled to the credit of a judicious historian, who ought to examine, by the laws of probability as well as by collateral authorities, the truth of every transaction which he admits into his narrative. Had Dr. Gillies regulated his conduct by this rational principle, he might have been convinced, from the experience of other nations and ages, as remarkable for profligacy, we believe, as Athens in the time of Pericles, that the idea of the profession of a courtesan being reduced into system, is one of those extravagant fictions which have their foundation in credulity, and ought to be rejected by every author who would maintain the dignity of historical composition, and direct his arduous labours towards the improvement and useful information of mankind.

To extend our observations on this work to every circumstance which demands animadversion, we should greatly exceed the bounds of a Review; and we shall, therefore, only make a few more remarks respecting its general character. Its most predominant quality is a terseness of style and sentiment, deeply tinged with affectation. The author professes to be an ardent admirer of ancient patriotism and virtue, which he takes every opportunity to commemorate. Indeed, the most specious sentences in the work are incidental reflections on this subject; too obvious, however, to be esteemed profound, and too little diversified to obtain the praise of ingenuity. An affectation, likewise, of political knowledge has sometimes prompted the author, with great impropriety, to allude to recent transactions; and in his account of the battles of the ancient Greeks in Asia, he speaks of squadrons, and evolutions, and manœuvres, with all the freedom of a military serjeant. The whole work, in point of sentiment, is more affected than animated; and, in style, less elegant than uniform. It contains a narrative uninterrupted by vacuities, but unwarrantably supported, in various parts, by the hypothetical supplements of conjecture; rendered yet more unwarrantable, and dangerous to history, by their not being acknowledged.

On Visitatorial Jurisdiction in Colleges of the Universities. A Letter to the Right Honourable the Earl of Mansfield. 4to. 1s. Rivington.

A Dispute having lately arisen, relative to the extent of the visitatorial power exercised in our universities, the author of this Letter examines the subject with great attention; and endeavours to establish the principles upon which, in his opinion, the controversy ought to be decided. He sets out with taking a view of the nature and limits of English jurisdiction in

in general ; shewing that none of the legal courts is invested with absolute authority, but that all are confined to the province of administering and interpreting, without the power of over-ruling and infringing the laws. The author having established this doctrine, proceeds to examine, by analogy, the nature of the authority in question. Colleges, as bodies corporate, he observes, derive their existence immediately from the crown ; and, whether founded at the instance of laymen or ecclesiastics, are now determined to be entirely *lay* corporations. That being endowed by the benefactions and bequests of their founders, they are also eleemosynary, and are consequently subject to the wills or statutes of those founders, who had an undoubted right, by the common law, to dispose of their property to what legal purposes they pleased. That visitors were instituted in the place of executors and trustees ; and that colleges being erected on royal charters, letters-patent, or acts of parliament to which the royal assent was given, still the king's authority, through the medium of his supreme court of judicature, namely that of the King's Bench, must be admitted, as in every other department of the executive power, to preside over all those foundations.

‘ The distinction made between the *fundatio incipiens* of the king, and the *fundatio perficiens* of the founder, is a mere fiction, contrived to erect the authority of visitors into a last resort upon the ruins of prerogative ; for the wills and bequests of founders, by which they perfect the king's foundations in dividing their property to their collegiate sons, are, in all respects, the same with the wills and bequests of fathers dividing their property to their lawful sons, but which do not pretend to vest all power of administering justice among their children in the breasts of executors and trustees, to the exclusion of the authority of the courts of law.’

The question which is the subject of this author's enquiry, however easily it might be resolved upon the principle of analogy, and a regard to the prevention of every possibility of abuse in the discharge of an office of trust, has formerly been litigated, in the cause of Exeter College, Oxford, when an appeal was made from the visitor's decree to the court of King's Bench. On this occasion, the lord chief justice, sir John Holt, differed in opinion from his three colleagues, who contended that the visitor's decree might be reviewed ; that his jurisdiction could not exclude the common law, but was liable, if erroneous, to be corrected by the higher courts. The chief justice maintained, 'on the contrary,

“ That by the common law, the office of visitor is to judge according to the statutes of the college, and to hear all appeals
of

of course; and, that from him and him only" (by what common law he determined this I should be happy to be informed) "the party grieved ought to have redress, the founder having reposed in him so entire a confidence that he will administer justice impartially," (so does the father in the executors and trustees appointed in his will) "that his determinations are final and examinable in no other court whatever."

Judgment was given according to the opinion of the three inferior judges; but by the influence of the opinion of sir John Holt, our author observes, the judgment of the court of King's Bench was reversed by the house of lords.

The author submits to the consideration of the public the three following propositions, as arising from the words in which the opinion of sir John Holt is expressed.

' 1. The visitors of colleges in the universities are bound, in duty and by virtue of their office, to receive, judge, and determine the appeals of all who are interested and concerned in the societies over which they are appointed to preside, either by themselves or their assessors.

' 2. They are impartially to judge and determine according to the plain and obvious meaning of the statutes of founders, where these statutes are express.

' 3. They are impowered to interpret in doubtful cases.'

These propositions are afterwards enforced at sufficient length by the author, who, we must acknowledge, displays not only much ingenuity, but strong arguments, in favour of rendering the jurisdiction of visitors, like all other offices instituted for the benefit of the community, cognizable by the supreme court of law.

Remarks on some of the Characters of Shakspeare. 8vo. 2s.
Payne and Son.

THE elegance and ingenuity of these Remarks make us regret that they were not extended farther. Mr. Whately left this pleasing field for the more ornamented garden: we are somewhat consoled by the elegance of his observations on 'ornamental gardening,' yet we are sorry to perceive the neglected state of the subject before us. Immersed in busy life, he left the 'idle trade' of an author, probably for more useful employment. If this were the case, we ought to resign our entertainment without a sigh.

Mr. Whately observes very justly, that the mind is discriminated with the same minuteness as the features; that a general likeness can convey no idea of the character, without the peculiarities which distinguish the subject of our remarks
from

‘from others who have the same cast of features, and the same tint of complexion.’ Nothing can be more just than this observation, and we have often endeavoured to enforce it.

‘Yet the generality of dramatic writers, and more especially of those who have chosen tragedy for their subject, have contented themselves with the distant resemblance, which indiscriminate expressions of passion, and imperfect, because general, marks of character can give. Elevated ideas become the hero; a professed contempt of all principles denotes the villain; frequent gusts of rage betray a violence, and tender sentiments shew a mildness, of disposition. But a villain differs not more from a saint than he does, in some particulars, from another as bad as himself: and the same degrees of anger, excited by the same occasions, break forth in as many several shapes as there are various tempers. But these distinguishing peculiarities between man and man, have too often escaped the observation of tragic writers. The comic writers have, indeed, frequently caught them; but then they are apt to fall into an excess the other way, and overcharge their imitations: they do not suffer a character to shew itself, but are continually pointing it out to observation; and by thus bidding the spectator take notice of the likeness, tell him all the while that it is but a representation. The former is commonly the defect of the French tragedies, which are therefore insipid, even when they abound with poetry and passion: and the latter is a fault common in the English comedies, which makes them disgusting, though they are full of wit, good sense, and humour. The one falls short of character, the other runs into caricature; that wants resemblance, and this is mere mimicry.’

Shakspeare had more carefully studied the human mind, and delineated with greater precision its characteristic features, than any of his successors. His characters differ from each other, yet all are animated and correct; and the same passion, in different circumstances, assumes such various appearances, that we do not at first recognise it. To examine these appearances according to the frame of mind which colours and directs them, was our author’s chief object; but his pen was soon caught from his hand, and he has left only a very imperfect fragment; imperfect, seemingly, not only in design, but in arrangement.

Richard the Third and Macbeth are both usurpers, both murderers, and both traitors. They are soldiers, who win the crown by treachery; and lose it, with their lives, in battle, against those who ought to have inherited it. So far the parallel is exact; but all beyond is contrast; for no characters differ more in their situations, in their sentiments; or the general events of their lives. This contrast is the subject of the

Remarks,

Remarks, in which the author displays great critical exactness, an acute penetration, and an intimate knowledge of the human heart. In some parts, his observations are too far extended; he dwells on the difference between the usurpers, with perhaps too partial a fondness for the discovery, and sometimes leaves a subject unfinished, to which, in another part of his work, he again recurs. This, however, ought not to be considered as a fault, because the remarks seem not to have profited by the mature reflections, and repeated examinations, of the author.

We cannot pursue this contrast: in general, Richard appears the 'gay bold-faced villain;' his crimes are excited by his ambition, and not checked by his remorse; he is brave, steady, and enterprising. Macbeth, on the contrary, is tender, timid, and superstitious. 'Whatever man dare he dares;' yet, at times, his bravery wants the spur from more ambitious spirits, and his steadiness is supported only by the artificial aid of charms: when these fail, he is fearful, irresolute, and at last courageous only from despair.—The following passage can be most easily separated from the rest, and we shall, therefore, insert it as a specimen.

'But the characters of Richard and Macbeth are marked not only by opposite qualities; but even the same qualities, in each, differ so much in the cause, the kind, and the degree, that the distinction in them is as evident as in the others. Ambition is common to both; but in Macbeth it proceeds only from vanity, which is flattered and satisfied by the splendor of a throne: in Richard it is founded upon pride; his ruling passion is the lust of power:

——“This earth affords no joy to him,

But to command, to check, and to o'erbear.”

and so great is that joy, that he enumerates among the delights of war,

“To fright the souls of fearful adversaries,”

which is a pleasure brave men do not very sensibly feel; they rather value

——“Battles

Nobly, hardly fought.”

But, in Richard, the sentiments natural to his high courage are lost in the greater satisfaction of trampling on mankind, and seeing even those whom he despises crouching beneath him: at the same time, to submit himself to any authority, is incompatible with his eager desire of ruling over all; nothing less than the first place can satiate his love of dominion: he declares that he shall

"Count himself but bad, till he is best."

and,

"While I live account this world but he'll,
Until the mis-shap'd trunk that bears this head,
Be round impaled with a glorious crown."

which crown he hardly ever mentions, except in swelling terms of exultation; and which, even after he has obtained it, he calls

"The high imperial type of this earth's glory."

But the crown is not Macbeth's pursuit through life: he had never thought of it till it was suggested to him by the witches; he receives their promise, and the subsequent earnest of the truth of it with calmness. But his wife, whose thoughts are always more aspiring, hears the tidings with rapture, and greets him with the most extravagant congratulations; she complains of his moderation; the utmost merit she can allow him is, that he is

———"Not without ambition."

But is cold and faint, for the subject of it is that of a weak mind; it is only pre-eminence of place, not dominion. He never carries his idea beyond the honour of the situation he aims at; and therefore he considers it as a situation which lady Macbeth will partake of equally with him: and in his letter tells her,

"This have I thought good to deliver thee, my dearest partner of greatness, that thou might'st not lose the dues of rejoicing, by being ignorant of what greatness is promis'd thee."

But it was his rank alone, not his power, in which she could share: and that indeed is all which he afterwards seems to shrink he had attained by his usurpation. He styles himself,

———"High-plac'd Macbeth."

But in no other light does he ever contemplate his advancement with satisfaction; and when he finds that it is not attended with that adulation and respect which he had promised himself, and which would have soothed his vanity, he sinks under the disappointment, and complains that,

———"My way of life
Is fallen into the fear, the yellow leaf;
And that which should accompany old age,
As honour, love, obedience, troops of friends,
I must not look to have."——

These blessings, so desirable to him, are widely different from the pursuits of Richard. He wishes not to gain the affections, but to secure the submission of his subjects, and is happy to see men shrink under his controul. But Macbeth, on the contrary, reckons among the miseries of his condition,

Vol. LXI, April, 1786.

X

"Mouth"

“ Mouth-honour, breath,
Which the poor heart would fain deny, but dare not.”
and pities the wretch who fears him.’

It will be obvious, that our author’s design differs from Mr. Richardson’s, which merited our commendations: we can only express our wishes that it may be ably pursued.

The Patriad, an Heroic Poem, in Three Books. 4to. 2s. 6d.
Debrett.

FROM the first book of this heroic poem, a name to which it has no pretensions, we conceived much hopes of entertainment. The Muses are at first invoked in a very sprightly manner; and several modern writers, particularly some of our ladies, ridiculed with tolerable success. After this, the comic or satiric Muse is introduced: we know not which is meant; for, in enumerating her votaries, we find some who were never much favoured by the first, nor others by the second. Having paid her compliments to the writers of the classic ages, she thus sketches some of the striking features of the succeeding ones.

‘ Henceforth, the influence of the nine,
On earth, ’gan rapidly decline :
Devils incarnate rul’d mankind,
And all the world, at once, grew blind.
They took a tyrant for a thing,
By Jove appointed, call’d a king.
They took a priest—’tis shame to hear on’t—
A pamper’d priest, for God’s vicegerent.
But, what of all appears most odd,
They took a wafer for their God :
A God, I mean, of flesh and blood,
That eat and drank, and sat and stood.
They swore that priest, with sign of cross,
Could of that wafer make a horse ;
And, faith, perchance the priest was right ;
A horse of gingerbread he might.
They swore that priests, with power divine,
Could into blood transform good wine ;
But, ere you could inspect the cup,
The priest took care to drink it up.
They swore—a very likely story !—
In brimstone, hell, or purgatory,
(And swore it with an oath imperial,)
That souls would burn, though immaterial.

They

They swore that wooden statues fainted,
And pictures by sign-painters painted,
Could hear and see, and, like postillion,
Ride post to heav'n, with pray'rs on pillion,
They swore that e'en the knuckle bone
Of saint-like sinner, dead and gone,
On being touch'd, would heal a wound;
Or save from being hang'd or drown'd :
And, to complete th' absurdity,
That three was one, and one was three.
All this they swore, and with the sword
Maintain'd it gospel of the Lord.
Such doctrine down men's throats they cram'd :
Believe, they cry'd, or you'll be damn'd.
Believe, or, by our virgin goddess,
We'll roast your souls and burn your bodies.'

These lines are not free from defects, nor so forcible and poignant as Butler's generally are ; yet they are neither unworthy nor unlike to those of that inimitable writer. Had the author continued in the same key throughout the poem, the tax of half a crown, levied on the reader for forty-five pages, might have been paid without repining. In the second book the Muse (and we think this performance might have been called the *Poetriad* rather than the *Patriad*), continues to relate the progress of comic humour, from the dark ages to the present times. She begins the last, which contains a ludicrous account of the Irish volunteers and their leaders, with a palpable bull ; asserting, that being

—— ' arriv'd at last,

Not at the end, but the commence—
Ment of our tale heroic ; whence
The world may learn, or rather might,
If men would read ; for tho' we write,
And cant'ring with our muse proceed,
It is not clear, the world will read.'

Though in a Hudibrastic poem we expect no great harmony of versification, yet, in reading such lines as these, and we meet with too many similar ones, where the sentiment makes no atonement for the flatness of the diction, we cannot but feel some degree of fatigue and disgust. A vein of humour, indeed, pervades the whole poem, but it is not often remarkable either for its strength or delicacy.

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

AS the British publications are at this moment numerous ; and, as each presses on us with its peculiar claims, we cannot give a very extensive account of any one foreign work. We shall briefly, therefore, inform our readers of what is transacting on the continent, and defer a more particular account of some of these works to a period of more leisure.

The third (Livraison) set of the beautiful views of Switzerland, were lately delivered. Six plates are pretty regularly published. They are coloured, executed with great clearness and brilliancy, and exhibit some of those views which delight and astonish the admirers of that romantic country. We have examined the greater number ; and, though unequal, yet the worst possesses considerable merit. They are mentioned with greater propriety in this place, because they are accompanied with a preface, written by the celebrated Haller, who, in his botanical researches, wandered over these varied scenes, and informs us, with his usual simplicity and force of language, what we may expect in this series of views. The representations are said also to be uncommonly accurate.

We shall not step far out of our path, if we mention the ' Historical and Universal Gallery' of Pictures, now publishing at Paris. These consist of the heads of eminent persons, etched in aqua fortis, with some short informations relating to their lives. Two sets are already published, at about three shillings each ; but the lives consist only of a few well-known facts. Each set contains eight portraits ; and they seem to be grouped without any regular design. If the pictures were animated, they would wonder at their situation, and cry out

' Now this is worshipful society !'

In the first, are the portraits of Alexander the Great ; Anne Boleyn ; Cicero ; Fenelon ; Massaniello, the Neapolitan hero ; Stanislaus of Poland ; William Tell, the deliverer of Switzerland ; and Vateau. In the second, Lebas ; Bossuet ; Julius Cæsar ; Christina of Sweden ; Henry IVth ; Magalotti ; Titian ; and De Wit. In France, the pulse beats high for liberty ; but their deliverance is probably yet at a distance. We may see the disposition of our neighbours, even from the publication before us. The band of heroes is not now led on by Louis Quatorze ; but by William Tell, by Massaniello, and Henri Quatre. The religious prejudices seem to have also subsided, by the choice of Anne Boleyn, whom every good Catholic usually ranked, as we do the Pretender, with no very honourable companion. But we see that the good Fenelon is still looked up to with respect ; and we may add, that a very superb quarto edition of Telemachus has been lately published ; another honour to his memory. We have not yet seen it, but we suppose

suppose it splendid, since the two volumes, sewed, cost two guineas in Paris. While we are mentioning superb editions, we are reminded of a splendid one of the *Satiricon* and *Fragments* of *Petronius Arbiter*, published last year at Berlin: we wish the editors had displayed their abilities on a better work. But to return; some of these heads, particularly that of *Stannislaus*, are said to be drawn from memory.

We advance nearer to the regions of literature, when we mention Mr. Buch'oz's *Dissertations* on different Plants, illustrated with coloured plates. Those which he has lately published, are, on the *Ipo*, a subtle poison, with which the arrows of the South American sayages are infected. On coffee, with an account of its cultivation, its preparations, its alimentary and medicinal properties. As usual, the properties of coffee are here estimated much too highly. The next essay is on the *Barringtonia Speciosa* of Mr. Forster, which we have already mentioned, in our account of Mr. Millar's 'Various Subjects of Natural History.' The last is a dissertation on the *Lagerstroemia*. There is but one species of this beautiful plant, which is one of the most splendid that adorns our hot-houses. It was denominated from *Lagerström*, a Swede, to whose attention we are indebted for a great part of our knowledge of the natural history of China. His museum of Chinese rarities, particularly those which belong to the animal kingdom, is displayed in the fourth volume of the *Amœnitates Academicæ*. The *Lagerstroemia* has been hitherto, we believe, only described by *Rumphius*. The subjects of the former *Dissertations* of Mr. Buch'oz, we suppose, are well known.

On the subject of Botany, we perceive, in the foreign Journals, a Dissertation on the Seeds of Plants, by *George Rudolph Bohmen*, of *Wirtenburg*. It contains a very accurate description of the different parts of the seeds, and their use; but we do not find that any thing very new is added.

It is with much pleasure we announce a new edition of the *Wirtenburg Pharmacopeia*, the authority of which we have had occasion to observe, is so extensive through Germany, and is so generally referred to, in the writers on the *materia medica* in Germany, Holland, and Switzerland. This edition is printed on better paper, and is much more correct than the former one of 1771. The first part contains an alphabetical catalogue of the *materia medica*, with the virtues, qualities, and sources of the different articles, and the French, Latin, and German names of each. The second part contains the formulæ, and a therapeutical list of the simple and compound medicines. It is concluded with an Index, in French, Latin, and German, referring to the account of every article and composition contained in the *Pharmacopeia*.

We are promised also, in the course of this year, the fourth volume of *Murray's Materia Medica*; or, as he styles it, '*Apparatus Medicaminum, tam simplicium, quam præparatorum*,

et Compositorum, in Praxeos adjumentum, consideratus.' It already consists of three volumes, published in 1776, 1779, and 1784, respectively; and is the completest and the fullest system which we have ever seen. The plan is new, and founded on the botanical analogy: we would recommend the consideration of it to the anonymous author, who lately published a short attempt to recommend this method of investigating the properties of medicines. The natural orders are greatly increased in number, and the arrangement is somewhat different. Since Dr. Murray's publication of this 'Opuscula,' we are told that he has been engaged in completing his 'Apparatus.'

Professor Kæstner, of Gottingen, has also published his Commentaries on the Optics of Boerhaave and Haller. The Optics of Boerhaave are contained in a little volume, published by one of his pupils, entitled 'De Morbis Oculorum.' The chief object of the professor is that passage, in the work just mentioned, where he says that, in fixing the eye on any object, we perceive only a very small physical point, directly in the axis; and that other points are only seen when we change the direction of the eye. It will be obvious, that the language is not quite correct, and that the position itself is rather mathematically than physically true. On the paper before us we see more than a single letter at once, and each letter contains many physical points. The fact is, that we see more than one point, but we see only one with clearness; and the area of vision is really much less than is commonly apprehended, without changing the direction of the axis. He next explains an intricate passage in Haller's Physiology, where he speaks of the concave glasses used by near-sighted persons. Another explanation of Haller relates to the means of judging of the size of an object, by the optic angle produced to the base of the triangle. The last part is on the use of microscopes; and M. Kæstner apologizes for M. Walther, whom Haller had accused of an error, relating to the refraction of the crystalline lens.

We have the pleasure of adding, that M. Saussure means soon to publish the second volume of his 'Voyage sur les Alpes.' Our correspondent, on this subject, will be attended to at the end of this Number, in the usual place.

M. Ingenhousz is pursuing his experiments on the effects which the various species of air, the different degrees of heat, light, and electricity, have on the vegetation of seeds, and the increase of plants. They are designed as the subjects of another volume of his Miscellanies.* The results of his experiments lie before us, but they are too long for our present limits. We hope to be able to resume the subject.

The researches of chemists continue to be successful; but M. Giorgi and Cioni, at Florence, have not been able to extract inflammable air from water: the causes of this failure are, at

* Two have been published; but one only has appeared in English.

this moment, the subject of a diligent enquiry. We have not room even to hint, in this place, at all the various pursuits, or even some of the later discoveries. We shall mention some striking facts, relating to one substance. The phosphoric acid has long puzzled us. It formerly impeded our analysis of the earth of bones: it more lately led the acute Bergman to believe, that he had discovered a new metal, the siderite; and we are now told, that Scheele's acidum perlatum, a new acid, which he supposed that he had discovered in urine, is only a phosphoric acid, combined with a little fossil alkali. Some ingenious chemists, employed in the founderies at the foot of the Alps, have, in their leisure hours, examined borax and its acid, the sedative salt. From their experiments, the latter is very probably a triple salt, with an excess of acid, containing a fossil alkali, some calcarious earth, and the phosphoric acid.

We shall finish this little sketch of literary news by the subject of the prize, proposed by the Academy of Arts, Sciences, and Belles Lettres, at Dijon, for the year 1787.

• What is the Influence of the Morality of Governments on that of the People ?

‘ This influence is certain, and the philosopher, who can read the history of all the inhabitants of the earth, must acknowledge it. He has seen that the principles on which the conduct of governments towards each other, and towards their subjects, is founded, become the principles of the subjects themselves.’

‘ By enquiring what the influence of the morality of governments on that of the people is, the Academy does not expect that the influence should be demonstrated; but hopes that it will be shown by its effects, that, by considering the nations, whose character and manners have been improved or injured in a sensible degree, the relation of the effects to their cause will be discovered.’

Of the two medals for the former essay, on the Theory of the Winds, the Academy has bestowed one on the chevalier de la Condray: his dissertation is now printing; and the second is reserved for the best improvement of his discoveries.

The names of the candidates who send essays must be concealed in the usual forms: only resident academicians are excluded from the contest. Their works must be sent free of expence to M. Maret, doctor of physic, perpetual secretary; or M. Caillet, professor of poetry, assistant secretary, before the first of April, 1787.

The medal is a gold one, of 300 livres value (about 13l.) bearing, on one side, the arms and name of M. Pouffier, the founder; on the other, the device of the Academy of Dijon.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

P O L I T I C A L.

General Observations on the Shop-Tax. 8vo. 1s. Whieldon.

THE author of this pamphlet writes in the character of a farmer. His observations are consequently plain and simple, at the same time that they are candid. We suspect, however, that honest Farmer Steady has some relation to the counter: for he proposes that the shop-tax should be converted into an additional tax on houses.

A Political Sermon, preached before a R—s H—ble H—e, on the First Day of the present Meeting of P—t. 4to. 1s. Hookham.

This political preacher has taken his text from Nehemiah v. 14, 15. He recommends the example of that faithful and zealous governor to the imitation of all who are entrusted with any share in the public service. Persons both in and out of office are equally objects of his salutary admonition; and he endeavours to enforce the practice of public virtue with all the apparent zeal and sincerity of a genuine patriot, though not with uncommon eloquence.

A Review of some interesting Periods of Irish History. 8vo. 1s. Whieldon.

The periods of Irish history considered by this author are the three following: the legal establishment of the Reformation under queen Elizabeth, the massacre and rebellion in 1641, and the civil war in 1689. The author makes many just observations on the state of Ireland, and the conduct of the English government at those periods. In respect of religious opinions, he appears to be moderate and liberal; but in what relates to politics he discovers a partiality to Ireland.

Present Politics of Ireland: consisting of I. The Right Hon. Mr. Hutchinson's Letter to his Constituents at Corke. II. Parliamentary Discussions of the Irish Arrangements. III. Mr. Laffan's Observations on the relative Situation of Great Britain and Ireland. With Notes by an English Editor. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale.

The first article in this tract consists of a Letter from the Right Hon. Mr. Hutchinson to his Constituents at Corke, relative to the commercial treaty between Great Britain and Ireland. Mr. Hutchinson had voted for the introduction of a bill for this purpose into the Irish house of commons, and in the present letter he justifies his conduct with great ability; explaining the salutary nature of the bill, and delineating the advantages which might be expected to result from it. The second article contains Parliamentary Discussions of the Irish Arrangements; by messieurs Conolly, Grattan, and Flood, on
one

one side; and by Fitzgibbon, Mason, Forster, and Hutchinson, on the other. The third is the production of Mr. Laffan, and contains Observations on the relative situation of Great Britain and Ireland. He declares himself of opinion, that commercial regulations between the two kingdoms, on terms of reciprocity, so far from proving detrimental to the interests of Ireland, would be attended with great benefit.

Letter from a Distinguished English Commoner to a Peer of Ireland, on the Repeal of a Part of the Penal Laws against the Irish Catholics. 12mo. 6d. Keating.

The author of this Letter paints, in strong colours, the various injuries and hardships which are yet inflicted by the penal laws in Ireland, on the Catholics in that kingdom. Whatever may be the success of his efforts in favour of the Roman Catholic subjects, it must be allowed that he asserts their cause with no less ability than moderation.

Opposition Politics exemplified. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

The editor of the Beauties of Fox, North, and Burke, has now betaken himself to comment, seriously, upon the frivolous effusions of party, which have appeared in the *Morning Herald* and *Gazetteer*, during the last twelve months. An author must be a weak advocate for government, who can find no better subject for animadversion.

A Narrative of the Insurrection which happened in the Zemedyary of Banaris, in August, 1781, and of the Transactions of the Governor-general in that District. 4to. Printed at Calcutta.

This Narrative contains a perspicuous account of the conduct of the governor-general, in the district of Banaris. If the documents adduced in support of these transactions are of indubitable authority, we think Mr. Hastings entitled to the warmest acknowledgments for the activity, the prudence, the vigilance, and ability, with which he discharged his important trust.

The Resolutions of the Madras Committee, held at Fort St. George, Sept. 19, 1785. Also, their Petition to the Parliament of Great Britain. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

These Resolutions and Petition are of the same nature and tendency with those which were lately framed in a meeting at Calcutta. They relate to some clauses in the East India bill of 1784; the obnoxious parts of which, we believe, have been entirely removed by the late amendments.

An Answer to the anonymous Remarks on a Letter from Warren Hastings, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

In our last Review we observed, concerning those anonymous Remarks, that they were written with a degree of acuteness not free from the suspicion of personal animosity. The Answer is not inferior in point of controversial poignancy; and repels, with forcible arguments, the attacks of the assailant.

The

The Letter of Dion Cassius, and its Answer, on the Subject of Reform in the Burghs of Scotland. 12mo. Printed at Aberdeen.

This modern Cassius defends the present mode of election in the burghs of Scotland, against the measures now in agitation for procuring a reform in this part of the Scottish polity. The Answer, by a burghs of Aberdeen, is spirited, and maintains the cause of freedom with much zeal.

Examination of the Rights and Duties of Jurors; with some Strictures on the Law of Libels. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Wheildon.

This author is one of the most moderate among the writers who have treated of the rights and duties of jurors; opposing, on one hand, the exertion of any dangerous prerogative in the judges, and, on the other, the claim of a jury to decide concerning the law as well as the fact. He conducts his argument both with ingenuity and learning; but is not likely to satisfy those who are friends to the popular side of this much agitated question.

P O E T R Y.

The Prize of Venus, or Killarney Lake. A Poem. Written by Mr. Robinson. 4to. 2s. Debrete.

Though this work is dedicated to the duchess of Rutland; with a modest hint that her grace might 'otherwise overlook the beauties' of that celebrated place: yet, in the poem, we suppose the author was desirous of having two strings to his bow; he requests the protection of lord Kenmure.

—— " Every note

Shall sound for thee; an unknown voice shall sing
Thy well-known virtues, and those heavenly scenes,
Which, too long, shame for Erin, lie unsung,
Nor see th' enraptur'd stranger stand in gaze
Before fair Nature deckt in grand array.

The stranger, we apprehend, would be equally invisible to those 'heavenly scenes,' sung or unsung. But it is well known that they have been often 'attempted both in prose and rhyme:' and our author, in the very next line, making use of a third address, compliments a friend, in no very intelligible language indeed, for his description of them.

'Thou too, my Griffin, worthy of the fame
That Friendship's voice can give, thou whose sweet lips
Once dropt into the Muse's wond'ring ears
The scenery divine.'——

The idea of scenery dropping from a lip into the ear of a Muse is certainly very abstruse; and if we have mistaken its meaning, we hope the author will excuse an involuntary error. Mr. Griffin is requested to 'look on the strains with rapture;' and the tale opens rather indelicately with 'green Erin' arising from the sea, and shewing to the

' Islands

' Islands all around
Her *blooming* bosom, and the *champain* fight
Of Fancy's every beauty.' —

All the Gods in Jupiter's palace, at the disclosure of such charms, become enamoured : he issues a *summons*—But let the author tell it his own way.

' In suppliant mood, and *interposals close*,
The God Creator they besought and urg'd ;
Each urg'd his several plea, that he alone
Might claim the vernal island as his lot.
' Th' impartial deity, to avoid offence,
Nor raise disturbance in the heavenly court,
Summons'd all his vassal-gods, and from his throne,
That throne, which cloath'd with blaze unsufferable,
Darts *horror* on the gods, and fills all heaven
With radiance, spoke thus *joyfully serene*.'

A deity so cautious in giving *offence* as Jupiter is represented, should certainly have taken another seat ; for what signified his *joy* and *serenity* to the poor gods, if they were blinded and thrown into distraction by the light of his throne ? But we shall pursue this strange performance no farther : another more extraordinary claims our attention.

The Fane of Britain ; an Historical and Critical Poem, in Three Cantos. 4to. 1s. 6d. Flexney.

' I cannot help feeling, says the author, some satisfaction, when I consider that I have counted *but nineteen years* ;' — It is indeed a wonderful performance for a youth of nineteen ! — Had it been written by one of nine, our admiration would have been considerably abated.

' The lion flies, and roaring with such force,
Loud as his fame, unbounded as *her* course,
Thro' yet untrodden paths, and *air-beat* ways,
Where yet's unheard Fame's trump, or British praise.
As o'er the earth I pass, my wand'ring eyes
Saw *subject*-kingdoms, which from *rivals* rise.'

' *Torva Mimalloneis implerunt*,' &c. of Persius, sinks into lameness and sober sense, compared with such tumid inanity. Whatever we may think of his youth, he has an exceeding good opinion of himself, and particularly of his *voice* ; which is described in such a manner as no voice ever was before, and we hope, for the credit of common sense, ever will again.

' If to my theme th' aspiring verse prove just,
My voice its polish saves from Time's fear'd rust.
(My voice, that circumvents th' attentive globe,
Of tongues th' ecliptick ; and the thought's best robe.)
Astride the lion, thy Pegasus he !
The subject, and thy muse behold in me !'

Our

Our bard seems in some places merely attentive to the rhyme, and fills up the intervening part with any words that suit the metre.

'To find a country where such splendours shone,
And oh! to find that country is my own!
These strings aspiring to your strains, the feat
Shews th' unskill'd virgin, with a virgin's heat.'

The idea, if there is any, in the first couplet appears to be, that the author is 'glad to find that he lives in his own country.' Of the next, we can make out nothing more than that *strings* seem applied to the country, and *strings* to the poem. We shall not presume to investigate what is meant by the 'feats of an unskill'd virgin.'

The Collyrium of the Nation: or, the best Remedy for the Sight.
4to. 1s. 6d. Macklew.

Another title would have been much more suitable—for 'Collyrium of the Nation,' read 'Delirium of the Author.' We meet not here, indeed, so many glaring absurdities as in the preceding article, but it is more ungrammatical, and equally unintelligible; witness the opening lines, which, to our shame be it spoken, have puzzled the whole corps of Critical Reviewers.

'First on philosophy, my muse, direct,
While the keen thought the distant climes inspect;
'Till amity's the main-spring of the mind—
The world 'midst folly wild, gapes ever blind.
Then since this dignity we can't attain,
How weak the man, the butt of others' gain;
Freeless from debt, ever prone to borrow,
Conscious of woes—wish for life to-morrow!
No variations new, but mixt with cares,
With him that richest lives, or poorest fares;
The best of clay some trick chicane will try,
From dervise strict, to devotee, or fly.
Each in this vale the game of broils must play;
Then ev'ry cynick deem the worst of clay.
Supernal, th' Omniscient rules on high!
And as we're good, we're station'd in his sky:
But as we're tyrants, punishment shall find;
Dire the proportion, as we hurt mankind.
Then candid live, and travel 'midst the heat
Of Phlegethons, you'll find some safe retreat.'

In our Sixtieth Volume, page 72, we expressed some apprehension of an epidemic disorder reigning among the bards in the West of England; and were in hopes that the late severe frost had put a period to its progress: but it gives us infinite mortification to perceive that it is now spreading to other parts. Should it reach the metropolis! the idea is as dreadful to Reviewers

viewers as an infectious fever in a parish work house, which an apothecary, eager to display his talents, has engaged to attend at an inferior rate.

MISCELLANEOUS.

The Advantages of Sunday Schools; a Discourse for the Benefit of that useful and excellent Charity, at St. Mary's, Manchester, October 2, 1785. By the Rev. John Bennett. 4to. 1s. Cadell.

The institution of Sunday schools, for instructing the children of the poor in the principles of religion, is a design which merits, in a particular manner, the encouragement of the public; as nothing can tend more effectually to prevent that corruption of heart which lays the foundation of all the moral evils that contaminate society. It is impossible to conceive more forcible arguments for the establishment of such a plan, than what are urged by the reverend author of this discourse, which we would warmly recommend to the perusal of all who have a regard either to national polity, or the most essential interests of mankind. It abounds with excellent sentiments of piety; with observations on religious duty not less important than rational; and with such strong indications of universal benevolence, as must command the applause of every reader. We sincerely congratulate the patrons of this new institution, on beholding the advantages of their laudable project displayed with such eminent abilities; and we hope that the meritorious example of Manchester will be zealously imitated over the kingdom.

The Beauties of Mrs. Siddons: or, a Review of her Performance of the Characters of Belvidera, Zara, Isabella, Margaret of Anjou, Jane Shore, and Lady Randolph. 8vo. 2s. Strahan.

Among the various beauties which have lately been so often and so wantonly exposed to public view, those of Mrs. Siddons now appear. We are pleased with her in every shape, even in the imperfect outline of this description. The characters selected, are those which she performed in Dublin, viz. Belvidera, Zara, Isabella, Margaret of Anjou, Jane Shore, and lady Randolph.

The remarks on Mrs. Siddons are occasionally accompanied with some on the plays in which she appeared. The latter are of little consequence; the former are correct, and the sensations she inspires are described in bold energetic language; but they are not distinguished either for their acuteness, or any very precise discrimination. If we consider them in a philosophical light, they will be found deficient; but, with this view, they were certainly not written; and it is no imputation to the author, that while she wished to give general information, she has not composed a metaphysical treatise.

Letters from Ninon de l'Enclos to the Marquis Sevigné, which have not before appeared in English. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Hookham.

The French make love by talking about it. In this little volume there is a great deal of this kind of conversation; and,

to parody the speech of a Frenchman, we may add, that 'the lady seems to have great talents for loving.' The Letters may be very useful for sentimental correspondents, and for some others, whose views may be much less refined; for it is wonderful how much may be expressed in this sentimental way, without raising a blush. The translator tells us, that a part only of this collection has been yet translated: we could have resigned this part without the least regret.

Essays on the following Subjects; Wealth and Force of Nations; Authenticity of Ossian; Accompaniment; Existence of Body; Fortification; Battle. By Charles M'Kinnon, Esq. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Edinburgh.

Never had any production less claim to regard than this whimsical miscellany, which, under the title of Essays, consists of incoherent sentences, mostly borrowed from other writers, and only rendered the property of this author by the capricious form into which he has metamorphosed them. The passages really original in this work are beyond conception ridiculous.

The Novelties of a Year and a Day. 12mo. 3s. sewed, Murray.

This little volume contains a series of picturesque letters, on the characters, manners, and customs of the French and English nations, with a very little of the Spanish; and interspersed, we are told, with real anecdotes. The author assumes the title of Figaro, and may afford entertainment to some readers.

Harmony of Law and Gospel, in the Method of Grace, demonstrated. By W. Arnot, Minister at Kennohay. 8vo. Jameston.

If we may judge from the extreme tediousness and cant of these sermons, the author is one of the religious sect in Scotland, known by the name of Seceders. That the sermons, however, have been well received by the congregation, there can be no doubt, as they are said to be printed by desire. But very different, we fear, will be their reception with the public.

*A Catalogue of Books, ancient and modern, in various Languages and Faculties, and upon almost every Branch of Science and Polite Literature; including an extensive Collection of Classical, Critical, and Philological Learning; collected, for the most Part, in Germany and the Netherlands: methodically digested, with a View to render it useful to Students, Collectors, and Librarians. To which is added, An Index of Authors, Interpreters, and Editors. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Sold by the Booksellers in London, &c. **

It affords us great pleasure to have an opportunity of announcing to the learned the publication of this Catalogue of Books, so uncommonly numerous and valuable. The collection amounts to no less than eight thousand different works; many of them distinguished by their celebrity, many, as we are informed, by the elegance and correctness of their editions, and

* This extensive and valuable Collection of Books will begin to be sold by Auction on May 8, 1786, and continue for thirty-five days.

not a small number by their scarcity. They have been collected in various parts of Europe, by a person who has devoted the greater part of his life to such employment. But what adds peculiar value to this Catalogue, is the remarkable judgment with which the books are arranged; a circumstance highly worthy of attention, and for which Mr. Paterfon is known to be particularly qualified. 'The arrangement of libraries, he very properly observes, is of no small importance to literature; more especially in an age when there are far more literary enquiry, just criticism, and general reading, than were ever known in this country.—It is the only means of pointing out the progress of science and knowledge of every kind, from the origin of printing, to which happy invention we owe the revival and diffusion of letters to the present time; and of noting the desiderata in each: for to know what is wanting, and may be done, it is highly necessary to be acquainted with what has already been done.'

To render the present Catalogue more useful to students, collectors, and librarians, Mr. Paterfon has subjoined an Index of Authors, Interpreters, and Editors. This addition is attended with one advantage of no inconsiderable moment; which is that of discriminating persons of the same, or nearly the same name. In a word, we cannot but regard this great collection as a literary treasure, the arrangement of which is no less honourable to the industry of Mr. Paterfon, than auspicious to the interests of learning.

A Table which reduces Deals, as imported from the Baltic, to Standard Deals. 4to. 6s. in Boards. Hodgton, Liverpool.

This Table shews the quantity of standard in any number of Baltic or common deals, from one to a thousand; of any length, from six to sixteen feet, and from seven and a half to twelve inches broad; of thickness, from one and a half to three inches, including the intermediate divisions. There is likewise a Table for white deals imported from Norway, when sold by the hundred, at twelve feet long and three inches broad; with a Table of Solid Measure, shewing the contents, in feet and quarters, of any piece of timber, from one to sixty feet long, and from five to twenty-four inches the girt, to every half-foot in length, and quarter inch in girt. The Tables seem not to be calculated with perfect accuracy; but a little correction is sufficient to render them extremely useful to the purchasers of those timbers.

A Candid Defence of the Appointment of Sheriffs' Brokers, as originally instituted by Sir Barnard Turner and Thomas Skinner, Esq. 8vo. Davis.

This author is evidently unacquainted with writing, but not deficient in the knowledge of his subject, with regard to which his sentiments appear to be just.

C O R.

CORRESPONDENCE.

WE have received Dr. Adair's Letter, relating to the 'Medical Cautions,' to which we paid as much attention as, from its real merit, seemed necessary: he must be aware that, in *our situation*, the motives he mentions, however laudable, could have no influence.

Our correspondent flattered himself, that he 'had some claim to originality;' and yet at distance from books, and offering merely the result of his 'own experience, and of those opinions which occurred to his recollection,' owns that he 'may be less explicit and accurate than he otherwise might have been.' This is not a good reason for publishing the Cautions, when he returned again to his library, unless he had ascertained the truth or the originality of his observations by a second examination. The tribunal of the public is a respectable one; and we are always displeased with excuses for negligence and inattention in those who voluntarily appear before it.

Dr. Adair will excuse us, when we observe, that our words were 'roasted meats,' not 'roast beef.' In many different parts of his work he expressly directs the meats to be roasted; and allows of the use of butter, even melted. In fact, we have not misapprehended our author; but he is a little inconsistent in different parts of his pamphlet.

WE are sorry that we can give no satisfactory information to our correspondent 'Physicus,' about the means of procuring Mons. Saussure's 'Voyages dans les Alpes.' We have been informed, that it is not to be met with in Paris; and most probably not to be bought in England. The first volume is only published, and affords great information on the natural history of the Alps. The second volume may, however, be soon expected. It is handsomely printed in quarto, adorned with a chart of the lake of Geneva and the adjacent country, and seven other plates; but these are not executed with any great elegance.

OUR correspondent Y, Z. reminds us of the promise which we made of analysing Mr. Charles' Antimonial Preparation; but the circumstances of the case are now very different from those in which our promise was made. At that time, Mr. Charles had published a general, and advertised a more particular account of the process; so that our analysis of the result was neither unjust or improper. At present, while the pamphlet which contains the rules at large is sold at a higher price, it would be both. We have not, however, been inattentive to our promise; and may be allowed to add, in vindication of our own opinion, that it is a calc, pretty highly dephlogisticated. It contains a very small proportion of uncombined vitriolic acid; and is only soluble, in a slight degree, even in a boiling heat. What we have else observed it may be injurious to the inventor to relate, though we have discovered nothing which will probably detract from the virtues it may possess as a medicine.

THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

For M A Y, 1786.

Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Vol. LXXV. For the Year 1785. Part II. 4to. 7s. 6d. L. Davis.

ARTICLE XVI. On the rotatory Motion of a Body of any Form whatever, revolving, without Restraint, about any Axis passing through its centre of Gravity. By Mr. John Landen, F. R. S.—Mr. Landen, in the *Philosophical Transactions* for 1777, and in his *Mathematical Memoirs*, has shewn, that any body, of certain dimensions, will, if uniformly dense, and made to revolve freely on any axis passing through its centre of gravity, continue to revolve about the same axis. If the axis be not permanent, its poles must constantly change; and it is of consequence, in the present improved state of astronomy, to enquire into the rate of variation, and its quantity, in every body whatever. The quantity of variation, our author calls the tract of polar evagation, and the object of this paper is to ascertain it, in given circumstances. The paper consists of mathematical reasoning, and cannot be abridged. Mr. Landen opposes the arguments of messieurs Euler and d'Alembert, whose conclusions differ from his own, with great force. The earth, as neither uniformly dense, nor regularly spheroidal, must have three permanent axes of rotation; and, if we add to these causes, the effects of other attracting bodies, it must endeavour to revolve about many successive momentary axes. But if the earth's rotatory motion is disturbed only by the centrifugal force, arising from the vis inertiae of its own particles, its tract of polar evagation will be nearly a circle, whose diameter is very small. In other planets, from the same cause, but otherwise in different circumstances, it may be greatly varied.

ART. XVII. Description of a new Marine Animal. By Mr. Everard Home, Surgeon. With anatomical Remarks upon the same, by John Hunter, Esq. F. R. S.—This animal has never been before described. It was violently raised from

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the deep abyfs, in which the fpecies ufually live concealed, by the violent hurricane at Barbadoes, in 1780. It refided in a brain-ftone, a fpecies of madrepore; but, though protected by the ftone, it is ftill covered by a fhell, which is immoveably confined in the coral, befides two moveable fhells, which cover fome of the fofter parts, not entirely protected by its ftony habitation. We cannot give any intelligible defcription of the animal, without the affiftance of the plate.

The poftfcript, by Mr. Hunter, is ingenious; but the imperfect ftate of the animal, when preferved in fpirits, has prevented him from being as particular as we could wifh.

‘ The internal ftructure of this animal, like moft of thofe which have tentacula, is very fimple; it differs, however, materially from many, in having an anus, moft animals of this tribe, as the polypi, having only one opening, by which the food is received, and the excrementitious part of it alfo afterwards thrown out; this we muft have fupposed, from analogy, to take place in the animal which is here defcribed, more particularly fince it is inclofed in a hard fhell, at the bottom of which there appears to be no outlet; but as there is an anus this cannot be the cafe.

‘ It is very fingular, that in the leach, polypi, &c. where no apparent inconvenience can arife from having an anus, there is not one, while in this animal, where it would feem to be attended with many, we find one; but there being no anus in the leach, polypi, &c. may depend upon fome circumftance in the animal œconomy which we are at prefent not fully acquainted with.

‘ The univalves, whose bodies are under fimilar circumftances refpecting the fhell with this animal, have the intestine reflected back, and the anus, by that means, brought near to the external opening of the fhell, the more readily to difcharge the excrement; and although this ftructure, in thefe animals, appears to be folely intended to anfwer that purpofe, yet, when we find the fame ftructure in the black fnail, which has no fhell, this reasoning will not wholly apply, and we muft refer it to fome other intention in the animal œconomy.

‘ In this animal we muft therefore reft fatisfied that the difadvantageous fituation of the anus, with refpect to the excrements being difcharged from the fhell, anfwers fome purpofe in the œconomy of the animal, which more than counterbalances the inconveniences produced by it.

‘ It would appear, from confidering all the circumftances, that the excrement thrown out at the anus muft pafs from the tail along the infide of the tube, between it and the body of the animal, till it comes to the external opening of the fhell, as there is no other evident mode of difcharging it.’

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The tribe of animals which have tentacula and double cones, like this described by Mr. Home, is little known: perhaps their chief residence is in the deepest seas.

Art. XVIII. A Description of a new System of Wires in the Focus of a Telescope, for observing the comparative Right Ascensions and Declinations of celestial Objects; together with a Method of investigating the same when observed by the Rhombus, though it happen not to be truly in an equatorial Position. By the Rev. Francis Wollaston, LL. B. F. R. S.—In our Fifty-ninth Volume, page 166, we gave some account of Mr. Wollaston's plan of ascertaining the relative situations of the fixed stars, by wires crossing each other, and forming a rhombus; but he candidly informs us, that, for various reasons, it has not hitherto succeeded as he wished. He now proposes a square inscribed in a circle, whose radii cross its sides at right angles. This method is executed with greater accuracy by common workmen, and promises to be useful. As his chief object was to ascertain the right ascensions and declinations of the stars, which were laid down, by observing their meridian passages, and meridian altitudes, as well as by their comparative passage through the field of an equatorial telescope, armed with a system of wires, in a rhomboidal form, he has now added another formula for computing the comparative right ascensions and declinations, when the instrument is not truly in the plane of the equator.

Art. XIX. An Account of a Stag's Head and Horns, found at Alport, in the Parish of Youlgreave, in the County of Derby. By the Rev. Robert Barker, B. D.—This head and horns, which were accompanied by some other bones of the same animal, are of a considerable size. They resemble what are called the thistle-neft horns, from the number of short antlers at the upper part; but exceed them in dimensions. They are even larger than a pair probably two or three hundred years old, which are really of a great size; though this animal, from the appearance of the sutures of the skull, was yet young. The author says, that it was found in a bed of tuft, 'a stone formed by the deposit left by water passing through beds of sticks, roots, vegetables, &c.' It is more probably a kind of tufa, from a very different source.

Art. XX. An Account of the Sensitive Quality of the Tree *Averrhoa Carambola*. By Robert Bruce, M. D.—We continually enlarge our acquaintance with the irritable tribe in the vegetable kingdom; for we think this term more proper than either sensitive or sentient. We believe the leaves of these plants are very generally pinnated, and the '*eschynomene*' does not deserve the title of '*movens*,' till the lesser folioles appear.

appear. In this species, the joint of the petiolus is the irritable part; for, unless the impression be so great as to bend the foot-stalk, no motion ensues. We believe this circumstance has not been examined with sufficient care in the other irritable plants; and perhaps this property may be found more general than we have hitherto suspected. The concentrated rays of the sun on the petiolus will produce motion; but a hole may be burnt in the leaf, without any such effect. Pressure on the universal petiolus will irritate all the leaves; and, when the pincers press it between any two pair of leaves, those nearest the extremity move sooner than those nearest the body of the plant: a fact no less remarkable than useful in explaining the nature of the motion.

Art. XXI. An Account of some Experiments on the Loss of Weight in Bodies on being melted or heated. By George Fordyce, M. D. F. R. S.—We shall only mention the fact, that water, in a vessel hermetically sealed, gained weight by freezing. The experiment was so carefully made, that it appears, at present, unexceptionable; but, as Dr. Fordyce has not given us his opinion of the cause, we shall not enlarge on it. He suggests other experiments, to elucidate the subject, and we have much reason to think that he means to pursue it. At present, he seems to suspect, that as heat lessens the attractions of cohesion, chemistry, magnetism, and electricity, it may also diminish that of gravitation. But this is mentioned in so guarded a manner, that it ought not to be given as his opinion.

Art. XXII. Sketches and Descriptions of three simple Instruments for drawing Architecture and Machinery in Perspective. By Mr. James Peacock.—These instruments seem to be very useful, and easily managed; but we can give no information relating to their construction, without the plates.

Art. XXIII. Experiments on Air. By Henry Cavendish, Esq. F. R. S. and A. S.—Our knowledge on these subjects is rapidly accumulating: at present, Mr. Cavendish is chiefly employed in detecting errors; but this, we have been long since told, is the first step to wisdom. It was this able chemist's opinion, that the diminution of air by phlogistication was not owing to the generation of fixed air: we need scarcely recall our reader's attention to the dispute, on this subject, between him and Mr. Kirwan. When air was phlogisticated by the electric spark, he supposed the diminution might happen, from its consuming some inflammable matter in its passage. We knew that when air, included by blue infusions, was diminished by the spark, the vegetable colour was changed to a red; and, on this account, the electric fluid was supposed

posed to be of an acid nature. This experiment succeeded with Mr. Cavendish; and, when the spark reached the air, through lime-water, no deposition followed, though the experiment was repeated till no farther diminution could be perceived. After frequent trials, with the same lime-water, even fixed air passing through it, occasioned no cloudiness in it; but caustic volatile alkali produced a brown precipitate. The lime-water was, therefore, saturated with an acid during the experiment, and the colour of the deposited matter seemed owing to a metallic solution, for the lime-water which confined the air was itself confined by quicksilver. With soap-lees the diminution was more rapid; and the best proportions, that is, those which would leave the least residuum after diminution, are five parts of pure air, and three of common; in other words, seven parts of pure air; and three of phlogisticated. On examining the fluid, instead of soap-lees, it was found to be a solution of nitre; so that the acid, formed during the operation, was the nitrous; and, from this cause, arises the usual change in vegetable solutions after these experiments. A very small proportion of vitriolic acid accompanied the nitrous; but not more than is usually found in soap-lees. A small quantity of marine acid was suspected, as a solution of silver was precipitated; but this was found to be owing to the phlogistication of the nitrous acid, a fact of some consequence in our chemical enquiries, particularly in the history of re-agents. Though we have no doubt of this effect arising from phlogisticated nitrous acid, yet there is some reason to suspect, that a small proportion of marine acid may still exist together with the nitrous. The foundation of this suspicion is, that a little sea-salt is always found in the nitre-beds.

The origin of the acid Mr. Cavendish explains from his former opinions. He observed that nitre, in desflagration, was changed into phlogisticated air; and hence concluded, with great probability, that this air was nothing but nitrous acid, with a superabundant proportion of phlogiston. Dephlogisticated air, which is only water deprived of phlogiston, is made to unite with the phlogisticated air, by the electric spark; that is, it is dephlogisticated in some degree, and the phlogiston, which made it assume the form of air, changes the other ingredient into water, and, between both, the nitrous acid is produced. This fact is of great importance; but we cannot apply it to any purpose, till it be more clearly ascertained that the electric spark adds nothing to the mixture: we need scarcely add, in reviewing Mr. Cavendish's papers, that every precaution was taken to guard against fallacy, arising from the impurity of the materials. The phlogisticated

cated air of our atmosphere seemed almost (probably wholly) of this kind; and the diminution did not, in any degree, arise from burnt matter, but entirely from the change into acid. Yet the solution of litmus was so far decomposed as to lose its colour, and to form at last fixed air. As the author has not indulged himself in drawing any consequences from these discoveries, we shall not intrude on his province, or our readers patience: yet, if the theory be established, numerous phenomena may probably be explained from it, particularly the revivifying effects of thunder-storms, the production of nitre, and many others.

Art. XXIV. An Account of a Measurement of a Base on Hounslow-Heath. By Major-general William Roy, F. R. S. and A. S.—This is a national work of very considerable importance; and it seems to have been executed with the judgment and accuracy which the great object required.

‘In the beginning of October, 1783, count d’Adhemar, the French ambassador, transmitted to Mr. Fox, then one of his majesty’s principal secretaries of state, a memoir of M. Caffini de Thury, in which he sets forth the great advantage that would accrue to astronomy, by carrying a series of triangles from the neighbourhood of London to Dover, there to be connected with those already executed in France, by which combined operations the relative situations of the two most famous observatories in Europe, Greenwich and Paris, would be more accurately ascertained than they are at present.

‘This memoir the secretary of state, by his majesty’s command, transmitted to sir Joseph Banks, the very respectable and worthy president of the Royal Society; who, about the middle of November, was pleased to communicate it to me, proposing, at the same time, that I should, on the part of the Society, charge myself with the execution of the operation. To this proposition I readily assented, on being soon afterwards assured, through the proper official channels, that my undertaking it met with his majesty’s most gracious approbation.’

We must suppose our readers acquainted with the operation; for, if they were not, it would exceed our limits to explain it. Those who are acquainted with trigonometry know, that if the base of a triangle be accurately measured, angles are ascertained with the greatest nicety, particularly in the improved state of our mathematical instruments; and, having obtained the dimensions of one triangle, a series of triangles, formed from different visible objects in succession, can be carried on to any distance, and measured with the greatest exactness. But if we err in measuring the base, an inconsiderable error is multiplied, and becomes of consequence, when the triangles are numerous, and the distance great; so that the most minute and anxious attention is required in this operation. We have great

great reason to think that a work of this kind has never, before this time, been so perfectly executed. The gentlemen, entrusted with the operation, have avoided almost every possible cause of error; and, by their precautions, have greatly elucidated several natural effects. It is impossible that we can give even the general detail of their methods, but shall enlarge, somewhat, on some circumstances which occurred to them in their progress.

The chain made by Mr. Ramsden answered exceedingly well; and we would recommend this form even in common mensuration. It has always been thought that fir, cut in the direction of the fibres, was not liable to be affected by moisture; and the choicest rods of this kind, both of New England fir, and Riga wood, thoroughly seasoned (for they were cut from old masts) were employed, but they were found to be affected considerably (we now speak of a very delicate experiment) by moisture; and the usual corrections were uncertain, for sometimes they exceeded, and at others fell short. Metallic rods were too heavy; but they at last procured glass tubes twenty feet long, and perfectly straight. With these tubes the base was ultimately measured. We shall insert a short extract, relating to the remarkable agreement between the glass rods and the chain.

‘In this manner we proceeded, and in the course of the day were only able to measure the length of ten chains, or one thousand feet, being the forty-sixth and forty-fifth hypotenuses of the base, the first of four hundred and the last of six hundred feet. Being arrived at this point it was found, that the fine line on the brass slide, marking the extremity of the tenth chain, fell short of another fine line on the same slide, denoting the end of the fiftieth glass rod, just two-tenths of an inch. Now it will appear hereafter, when we come to shew, by the experiments with the pyrometer, what the real contractions of the chain and glass rods were, for the degrees of difference of temperature below that in which their respective lengths were laid off, that this small apparent difference of two-tenths of an inch, between the two modes of measuring the thousand feet, should have been 0.17938 in. to have made the two results exactly agree, which is a real difference of only 0.02062 of an inch. Supposing then every thousand feet of the base to have been measured by the chain with the same attention, and consequently with the same, or nearly the same success (and there surely cannot be any reason to doubt of the practicability) we shall have 27.404×0.02062 in. ≈ 0.565 in. or a defect of something more than half an inch on the whole length of the base.’

The description of what is called the microscopic pyrometer, employed to determine, by experiment, the expansion of
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the metals concerned in measuring the base, then follows : it is alluded to in the above extract. This instrument also we are unable to describe ; but, after the several corrections, the measure of the base reduced to the level of the sea, and making a portion of the mean circumference of the earth, amounts to 27404.7219 feet.

Art. XXV. Abstract of a Register of the Barometer, Thermometer, and Rain at Lynddon, in Rutland, 1784. By Thomas Barker, Esq. Also of the Rain at South Lambeth, Surrey ; and at Selbourn and Fyfield, Hampshire. By Thomas White, Esq. F. R. S.—The year 1784 was remarkable for the severity of the weather, with which it commenced. In February, the lowest point of the out-door thermometer was 9° ; but there is little information from this mode of keeping a journal. Two observations should be made every day, and each day's weather particularly specified. October, as usual, was dry ; but the rain that month, in 1785, compensated for the October droughts of the preceding years.

The volume is concluded, in the common way, with a list of presents ; and we must conclude this account by acknowledging our obligations for much instruction contained in the second part, which has been now the subject of our remarks.

The Chemical Essays of Charles William Scheele. Translated from the Transactions of the Academy of Sciences at Stockholm. With Additions. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Murray.

THIS translation owes its origin to a conversation on the slow gradual manner in which the advances in literature on the continent are communicated to this island. We have often lamented it, in various parts of our Journal, for it has exposed us to the very disagreeable circumstances of correcting authors for errors, which they would have avoided by extending their views beyond the British publications, and of detracting from assumed merit, when they have only hinted at what, in other works, has been fully explained. On this account, we have allotted a large part of our Journal to that science, which is daily augmenting in the number of its facts, and becoming of more consequence by the importance of its discoveries. We have lately too, pointed out some useful publications, which should be made our own, by an English dress, and this kind of recommendation will be occasionally repeated ; so that we hope this nation, which has hitherto led the way in science, will not be ashamed, in some instances, to follow. There is only one objection to his plan and ours : the reader may exclaim, ' inopem me copia fecit.' A stock
of

of knowledge at once put into his hands; another world opened to his view, may terrify the indolent, and make even a moderately sanguine enquirer hesitate to attempt a study almost new. The objection will, however, be temporary; and should, at least, not impede designs, which must be attended with so many advantages.

Mr. Scheele is chiefly known in England, by his treatise 'on air and fire,' translated by Mr. Forster, and adorned with the remarks of Mr. Kirwan and Dr. Priestley. His other works are mentioned by Bergmann and Fourcroy, by Dr. Priestley, Mr. Cavendish, and some of the more learned English chemists; but his opinions have been gradually introduced, so that many of them are commonly known, even by men who have scarcely ever heard of the author. The translator is known by the Treatise on Elective Attractions, lately published in English, and elucidated by valuable notes; we suspect also, that we are indebted to him for the Dissertations of Spalanzani; and we have had occasion to praise his execution of both these tasks. In the work before us, he rather appears to have been a corrector and editor than a translator. The translation was executed by a foreigner, and a few foreign idioms still occur; but not so many as to render the Essays unpleasing to an Englishman. Mr. Beddoes has, however, added other papers from messieurs Crell, Meyer, Wiegleb, &c. which render the Essays more valuable. A French translation, by M. Morveau, is mentioned, which the editor has not seen. We have not been able to compare it with the present version. It is not translated by M. Morveau, but by madame P * * *, of Dijon, and is published in three volumes, duodecimo. The notes are curious and useful; which Mr. Beddoes purposes to add to his translation of the second volume of Mr. Scheele's other Essays.

The four first Essays are on the Fluor Mineral and its Acid. The various steps which led to the present opinions, and the errors which once misled chemists, are carefully explained. The fluor acid was supposed, in union with water, to form flint; and this opinion is not yet wholly forsaken, though it is certainly not tenable. We have, on different occasions, suggested some doubts relating to it, and pointed out its probable origin, viz. the glass-vessels employed in the operation. In fact it is clearly shewn, in the third and fourth Essay, that the acid dissolves the glass, and carries the flint over into the receiver, where it is deposited on coming in contact with water. Yet so intimate is their union, that, in the form of air, the acid and flint pass through quicksilver, unchanged. But the appearance,

ance, during the change, when the air comes into contact with water, is so obviously that of a deposition, and so little resembling a new formation, that we always hesitated about the common opinion, even before we saw the Essay in which the cause is explained.

It is well known that we are indebted to Mr. Scheele for our knowledge of the properties of manganese. His Essay on this substance is very full and satisfactory. We shall transcribe an abstract of its different properties, in our author's own words.

‘ Manganese has a strong elective attraction for all phlogistic substances. This attraction becomes stronger, if there be a menstruum present which at the same time can unite with the phlogisticated manganese. In this situation the manganese is able to attract phlogiston more strongly than the nitrous acid does via humida. When manganese is saturated with phlogiston, it loses its black and assumes a white colour, which, however, disappears as soon as the phlogiston is separated from it again. Without combining it with phlogiston, there is no way of producing a colourless solution of manganese in any acid; and, whenever phlogiston is wanting, the solution becomes blue or red. By means of these four general qualities of manganese, discovered by a train of experiments, all its known effects are easily explicable.

Its strong attraction for phlogiston makes it the most proper substance to dephlogisticate the marine acid, which then chiefly appears in the form of air; for, when separated from phlogiston, it unites with water in a very small quantity, giving it only a taste slightly acid. Yet it should be noticed, that the loss of phlogiston is not essential to its aerial form; since muriatic acid air, made in the common way, will combine in any degree with water, and form common muriatic acid, though this union is formed slowly, and sometimes imperfectly. We shall add the properties of this dephlogisticated acid, as they are not generally known.

‘ I observed that the corks (A) became yellow within the receiver, as from aqua fortis, and the lute was likewise corroded during the distillation. (B) Paper coloured with lacmus became nearly white; all vegetable red, blue, and yellow flowers, grew likewise white in a short time; the same thing happened to green vegetables: meanwhile, the water in the vessel was changed into a weak but pure muriatic acid. (C) The former colour of the flowers, or of the green vegetables, could not be recovered either by alkalis or acids (D), expressed oils and animal fat, whether dropped into the tube, or smeared upon it, grew in a short time as tenacious as turpentine. (E) Cinnabar grew white upon the surface, and, when it was washed in water,
a pure

a pure solution of corrosive sublimate was obtained; but sulphur was not changed; (F) vitriol of iron grew red and deliquescent; vitriol of copper and zinc remained unchanged; (G) iron filings, put into the tube, were dissolved. The solution, after being evaporated to dryness, and then distilled with the addition of some concentrated vitriolic acid, again yielded pure marine acid, in which gold remained undissolved. (H) All the metals were attacked, and, with regard to gold, it is remarkable that its solution in this dephlogisticated muriatic acid, yields, with volatile alkali, aurum fulminans. (I) When some volatile alkali, prepared from sal ammoniac and quicklime, was dropped upon the tube, a white cloud was produced, and a great number of air-bubbles were discharged from them, which, on bursting, yielded a vapour. (K) Fixed alkali was changed into common salt, which decrepitated, but did not detonate in the fire. (L) Arsenic became deliquescent in this vapour; (M) insects instantly died in it; (N) and fire was instantaneously extinguished.

In making the saccharine acid, the phlogiston which involved the acid is separated by spirit of nitre. If manganese is employed with a diluted vitriolic acid, vinegar is the result; and it must be understood, that the dilute vitriolic acid has no power on manganese without some phlogiston. This body too, though so greedy of dephlogiston, seems to decompose acid of lemons, and to change it, in part, into aerial acid. Our chemical readers will see the tendency of these facts, and we have preserved them for future application.

The effects of manganese on glass we have before mentioned: the experiments on this subject are very clear and full. Mr. Van Engestrom's remarks on the Essay relate, however, chiefly to them. We may alledge, as he has done, to account for the different results of their experiments, that it is not easy to measure the degree of heat produced by the blow-pipe; but we think, that the remarker has not attended to some minute distinctions, in Mr. Scheele's mode of making the experiments. The manganese, in vegetable mould, is now well known; and this subject also our author has examined with his usual care, but the incompressible nature of chemical facts obliges us to pass over many which occur in this Essay and the future ones. We can only give the outline of general properties.

Arsenic and its acid, whose nature Mr. Scheele first discovered, have been frequently the objects of our remarks. Two methods of separating the acid from phlogiston are described; but the first is the most convenient. The action of the acid, on different substances, is next examined: its strong attraction for phlogiston is ascertained, as well as its similarity to metallic

tallic substances in other respects. The great variety of experiments, in this dissertation, fully explain the properties of this very peculiar metal.

In the following Essay the author teaches us to extract the salt of benzoin without sublimation. We shall mention his method, because, if this medicine be continued in our Dispensatories, it is more eligible than sublimation.

‘ Upon four ounces of unslacked lime pour twelve ounces of water, and, after the ebullition is over, add eight pounds more (the pound twelve ounces) of water; then put a pound of finely pounded resin of benzoin into a tinned pan, pour upon it first about six ounces of the above lime-water, mix them well together, and thus successively add the rest of the lime-water. If it be poured in all at once, it will not mix with the benzoin, which will likewise coagulate, and run together into a mass. This mixture ought to be boiled over a gentle fire for half an hour with constant agitation; then take it from the fire, let it stand quiet for an hour, in order that it may settle; pour off the supernatant limpid liquor into a glass vessel. Upon the remainder in the pan pour eight pounds more of lime-water; boil them together for half an hour, then take it from the fire and let it settle; add the supernatant liquor to the former; pour upon the residuum some more lime-water, boil it as aforesaid, and repeat the same process once more. At last, put all the residuum upon a filter, and pour hot water several times upon it. During this process, the calcareous earth combines with the acid of benzoin, and separates it from the resinous particles of this substance. A small quantity of the resin is dissolved by the lime-water, whence it acquires a yellow colour. All these yellow leys and decoctions are to be mixed together, and boiled down to two pounds, which are then to be strained into another glass vessel.’

Mr. Baumé supposed that clay was only flint, united with vitriolic acid; for, in various experiments with flint, he procured alum, and continued to obtain it as often as he repeated the experiment. Mr. Scheele, however, discovered that it arose from the corrosion of his crucibles. He found too, that common clay contained no vitriolic acid, and was not soluble in water, as that author had asserted. Some miscellaneous experiments on clay then follow; and they elucidate its curious properties. Gypsum, it seems, will not unite with clay; but it will take up a superabundant quantity of lime, and, in that state, it unites with argillaceous earth, and makes a triple salt.

The next subject of our author's enquiry is the calculus vesicæ. Mr. Scheele finds that it contains an oily acid, with gelatinous matter. In other words, it is an earthy salt, in which

which an oily or a phlogificated acid is united with a gelatinous matter, that seems to be an animal earth. Our author thinks that it contains no lime; but that the acid is superabundant, though lime, with phosphoric acid, is actually contained in the urine. He thinks all urine (he must mean healthy) dissolves calculi, and that distilled water has the same effect. He says also that the urine of the sick contains a larger proportion both of acid and animal earth. This, by other chemists, has been particularly observed in the urine of gouty persons, during a fit.

Bergmann, in his remarks on the paper, did not find distilled water so perfect a menstruum as Scheele represented it. The white flocculi, which he says remain, are either inspissated mucus, or probably the interior membranes of the urinary passages, which we know, in such cases, are sometimes abraded. Bergmann thinks, as we always supposed, that the calculus actually contains lime; but gives us no satisfactory information on the nature of the acid. It has been said to be the acid of sugar; but without sufficient foundation. Whatever it may be, it is probably not confined to the vesica urinaria.

Of Scheele's method of preparing *mercurius dulcis*, in the moist way, we gave an account in reviewing Swediaur's work on venereal complaints. Its utility is obvious, for a very simple reason, that it is prepared in a method by which it exists in a finer powder than can be obtained by the most careful trituration. When we tell a chemist that it is procured without corrosive sublimate, a preparation sometimes unequal, whose chemical nature is not thoroughly understood, he will think the improvement a very material one.

The improved method of preparing the *pulvis algaroth*, so essential in making emetic tartar with the most certain given strength, is also useful. In this too, the corrosive sublimate is not now employed. We shall subjoin the process.

Take of powdered crude antimony one pound, powdered nitre one pound and a half, which, after being well dried and mixed, are to be detonated in an iron mortar. The *hepar*, obtained in this manner, is to be powdered, and a pound of it to be put into a glass vessel, on which, first a mixture of three pounds of water and fifteen ounces of vitriolic acid is to be poured, and afterwards fifteen ounces of powdered common salt are to be added; the glass vessel is then to be put in a sand-bath, and kept in digestion for twelve hours; during which period the mass is to be constantly stirred. The solution, when cool, is to be strained through linen. Upon the residuum one third of the above mentioned menstruum is to be poured, the mixture digested and strained. From this solution, when it is diluted

diluted with boiling water, the pulvis algarotti precipitates, which is to be well edulcorated and dried.

Molybdæna and Plumbago are, at present, well known. We shall not enlarge on the analysis, though they are important; because we have had various opportunities of mentioning their results.

The fourteenth Essay is on the new Green Colour, observed in our author's Experiments on Arsenic. He informs us of the method of preparing it; and it seems to consist of copper, partly phlogisticated, added to the acid of arsenic.

The fifteenth Essay is on the Decomposition of Neutral Salts, by unslacked Lime and Iron. This is effected in particular circumstances only: which will be sufficiently obvious, from its contradicting the general laws of affinity.

The author next endeavours to determine the quantity of pure air in the atmosphere. His experiments are not decisive; but they afford comparative observations with sufficient accuracy. We know, from more certain trials, that the proportion of the dephlogisticated air in the atmosphere does not vary considerably. Our author finds a little less variation than there probably is. The usual quantity, in his opinion, amounts to $\frac{2}{3}$, almost $\frac{1}{4}$ of the whole.

Mr. Scheele's Analysis of Milk is more complete than any that we have yet seen, though much remains to be discovered. The earth of cheese is, he thinks, the true animal earth, viz. lime, with a superabundant phosphoric acid. The acid of milk contains an essential salt, animal earth, sugar of milk, a little muriated vegetable alkali, and mucilaginous matter. The acid will not rise, in any great quantity, into a receiver, so that it was procured by elective attraction; but we must suggest that, as spirit of wine was employed, we fear the acid was in some measure changed by it. The acid which comes over is a weak vinegar, that which is separated *resembles* vinegar only, but is not so. During the operation by which milk is changed to an acid, much fixed air escapes; and, by adding a spoonful of good brandy to a pint of milk, vinegar may be actually procured. The sugar of milk, treated like common sugar, with spirit of nitre, gives the saccharine acid. We mention these facts to show the great analogy between the different acids.

The tungstein we have sufficiently enlarged on, in our accounts of Bergmann, and of the analysis of the Spanish chemists; so that we shall proceed to the next subject, viz. æther.

Mr. Scheele, in endeavouring to ascertain the nature of æther, examines, with care, the different processes in which it

is made. He finds, in vitriolic and nitrous æther, traces of the several acids; but we suspect that, when he seeks for them in the several æthers, he rather composes them again from their scattered fragments. We are now certain that acids are not homogeneous bodies; and it is probable that they are decomposed in forming æther, and may appear in the subsequent experiments, from a re-union of their several parts *. In another respect, we must correct Mr. Scheele. He observes, that he could not make the acetous æther without the addition of some mineral acid, and hints his disbelief of the count de Lauragais' success. We have good authority, however, to assert, that if equal quantities of radical vinegar and spirit of wine are distilled, and the product again cohobated with the residuum; and, if this operation be repeated three times, an ætherial liquor will be carried over into the receiver. This is to be rectified with fixed alkali, and again distilled, properly separating the products of each period of the distillation. From twelve ounces of each of the ingredients, six ounces of good æther are procured; but we shall have occasion to return to this subject. With no other acid could Mr. Scheele succeed in producing æther, except only the acid of benzoin; but, in this operation, other chemists have not had equal success. We shall not enlarge on our author's attempt to explain the nature of æther, and the principles of the operation, because we strongly suspect that his foundation is questionable, and his superstructure is not very striking or satisfactory.

Vinegar, we are told, will keep without moulding, if, previous to its being put in bottles, it be boiled over a strong fire for a quarter of a minute, and corked while hot.

In the following Essay is an account of the tinging acid by which Prussian blue is precipitated: we explained its nature in general, in the twelfth page of the present volume of our Journal; but our author has given us a more full account in a subsequent Essay, which now first appears in this translation. Mr. Scheele found that this colouring liquor, which we must still call acid, though it has no very decisive properties of an acid, may be combined with lime; and, in that case, it is more convenient for precipitations than in the usual forms; but it must be preserved with care; for all acids, even the aerial, destroy this very slight union. The tinging acid contains fixed air and phlogiston, perhaps not without other ingredients, or it might be styled a highly phlogisticated aerial acid. The volatile alkali is contained in Prussian blue; and Mr. Scheele thinks it is an ingredient in the colouring liquor.

* With a proper apparatus *much air* is observed to be absorbed during the operation of making æther.

• Hence

'Hence I was disposed to believe, that the constituent parts of the colouring matter were volatile alkali, and an oily substance. In this opinion I was the more confirmed, when I saw, that, on dissolving martial vitriol in spirit of hartshorn, recently distilled, and adding to it muriatic acid, I obtained Prussian blue. I have, however, distilled oxes blood, till nothing more would pass over into the receiver, and the retort was red hot. I filtered the liquor of the receiver, in order to separate from it the empyreumatic oil, and then dissolved a little martial vitriol in it, and added a superabundant quantity of acid; and thus, likewise, obtained Prussian blue. I then resolved to make several experiments, the principal purpose of which should be, to unite the volatile alkali with some oily substance. For this purpose I distilled a mixture of concrete volatile alkali and unctuous oil; a mixture of the same alkali with animal fat; and, on another occasion, with oil of turpentine; a mixture of quicklime, sal ammoniac, and axunge; the same mixture with oil of hartshorn; likewise a mixture of potashes, sal ammoniac, and empyreumatic oil; the same mixture with axunge; but all in vain. The liquors obtained in the receiver, which consisted of phlegm, mixed with volatile alkali and oil, never yielded even the slightest mark of Prussian blue. Hence I concluded, that, though aerial acid and phlogiston are obtained every time any oil is decomposed, it at the same time contains water intimately combined with the other constituent parts, and that it is absolutely necessary that this water should be separated from them, before a perfect union of the volatile alkali can take place.'

Our author afterwards found, that no oil was required in the preparation of the colouring acid; for the volatile alkali is capable of uniting with the coaly matter, after it has been subtilized with a strong heat; and then unites so strongly with alkali of tartar, as to bear the most violent heats. This alkali, dissolved in water, he supposes to be the *lixivium sanguinis*. We own that this opinion is attended with many difficulties; and it must be allowed, that substances of a very different nature will throw down a coloured precipitate, or that some parts of the operation are still little understood. A convenient method of preparing the tinging acid is afterwards subjoined.

Mr. Scheele next opposes Dr. Weber's opinion, that calcareous earth contains the inflammable principle which he had set up in opposition to Dr. Black's doctrine of fixed air. Our author, by many curious facts and arguments, supports Dr. Black's opinion. The next Essay contains remarks on Mr. Wenzel's doctrine of the affinity of bodies. Several miscellaneous observations follow, which we need not enlarge on. The last Essay which we shall mention is on the resemblance between the several vegetable acids, by Dr. Crell. He endeavours to shew the connection of the native acids, viz. the acid essential

essential salts, and that of tartar, with the acetous acid evolved by fermentation, and with the acid extracted from mucilaginous substances by spirit of nitre, viz. the saccharine. In a subsequent paper he explains the similarity between vinegar and the nitrous acid, which has long since been insisted on by Rouelle, and very lately by the French academicians; but he points out a similar resemblance, between vinegar and the vitriolic acid, which has not hitherto been mentioned. The length of our article, and the author not having made any very decisive experiments, prevent us from enlarging on the subject. On the whole, we think this volume a very useful one; and we are pleased to find, that the author means to translate the other Essays of Mr. Scheele.

An Account of the Present State of the Hebrides, and Western Coasts of Scotland. By James Anderson, LL.D. F. R. S. F. S. A. Scot. 8vo. 7s. in Boards. Robinson.

IT has long afforded matter of astonishment to neighbouring nations, that Britain, whose shores are surrounded by greater shoals of fish than those of any other country on the globe, should have so long remained inactive herself with regard to the fisheries, while others have been enriched by the treasures they have derived from this source. Their wonder is yet farther increased, when they consider that all ranks of people in this island, for many years past, have shewed the greatest desire possible to encrease her marine, and have, therefore, warmly patronised every scheme that promised to augment the number of her seamen.—Yet the fisheries on her own coast, which are obviously better calculated for rearing seamen to her than any other measure that can be proposed, have still been suffered to remain in such a languid state, as neither to employ the industry of the people, augment the wealth of the nation, nor add to the revenue and resources of the state. To explain this seeming paradox, and to pave the way for future improvements, it will be necessary to take a retrospective view of some historical events which have had an influence on the present question.

After this very useful remark, the judicious author gives a historical induction concerning the British fisheries, in which he takes up his subject from the earliest accounts, shews the effects of some local unfortunate circumstances, which have prevented its success; and that it never can be productive of any *national* advantage, until various impediments are removed. Some of these impediments are a want of towns on the western side of Scotland, and of course a want of those conveniencies and necessities which man, in society only,

can procure: the want of a post-office is, of itself, sufficient to prevent any trade from being carried on; for, where no information can be given, nor procured, commerce is cramped in its first principles. In a flourishing country, as we have lately observed, agriculture and commerce depend so much on each other, that it is difficult to disunite them; in a country possessing neither, it is no less difficult to find which is most proper first to encourage, for they ought to begin together. If this beginning is not made with a due attention to the nature of the country, and the character of the people, it must ever be abortive.

Dr. Anderson is thoroughly sensible of these principles, and gives many incontrovertible proofs of the impossibility of our ever making a national advantage of that profusion of fish, with which the shores of Scotland abound, unless the western side of that country, their chief resort, has villages and towns, and those towns an easy correspondence with each other. In fact, every attempt towards improvement must begin on an extensive scale, and be pursued with spirit, and a proper view towards the chief defects. The great inconveniencies which the inhabitants of this district, and of the Western Isles, experience from the salt duties, as they are at present established, must be added to the more general causes, and must be greatly lessened, or totally altered.

The author observes, that it

‘ It is many years since the obvious importance of these neglected regions, attracted the particular notice of the writer of this performance; and he published his thoughts on that subject in the year 1777, in a treatise, intitled, *Observations on the Means of exciting a Spirit of National Industry, &c.*—He once more touched on this subject, in an essay he offered to the public in the end of the year 1780, intled, *The Interest of Great Britain with Respect to her American Colonies considered*; in which he had occasion to show, that the nation had in vain expected, for some centuries past, to derive advantages from its transatlantic dominions, which it never did, and never could obtain, while it neglected treasures of a more valuable kind, that long had been in her sole possession.—The subject once more obtruded itself upon him, on the close of the late war, which he considered as a most favourable opportunity for bringing this subject under the public notice: he therefore compiled a treatise, intitled, *A Proposal for establishing the Northern British Fisheries*; in which the Circumstances that have hitherto frustrated every Attempt to establish these Fisheries are investigated, and Measures suggested by which these Obstructions may be removed, &c. This treatise was printed for the perusal of his friends; but was not published, as he considered himself not sufficiently instructed in all particulars relating to it,

it, never having been on the coasts, where the fisheries can be chiefly carried on, in person; and therefore justly suspecting that he might be unacquainted with many local facts, which it was of much importance should be known, before a decided judgment on this subject could be formed. This treatise was printed in the year 1783; and having attracted the notice of some public-spirited men, the writer was applied to in the beginning of the year 1784, to see if he would incline to undertake a voyage along those coasts, with a view to obtain the information on that subject, which he seemed to think was of so much importance. To this proposal he readily assented; and having obtained an order from the Treasury for one of the king's cutters to attend him on that expedition, he proceeded on it with alacrity. The following Report to the Lords of the Treasury, with the illustrations that accompany it, contain an abstract of the observations he there made.

How far the Report may have been affected, by the author not sailing till much of the summer was over, we know not; but it seems probable, that Dr. Anderson was too late for some circumstances which he must have wished to have seen with his own eyes. The information, however, which he procured from the best authorities, leaves no doubt on the mind of the reader, as we hope it will not on those to whom the Report was made, but that the Scottish fisheries are worthy of every possible attention, and will richly reward government for any expence that may be required to improve them.

The facts recorded in this volume do not only relate to the fisheries, but point out many other sources of improvement, in the Western islands; for these, we must refer to the work, and its various illustrations, since detached facts cannot easily be abridged. We shall select only, as a specimen of his remarks, the following curious observations on the herring.

‘The herring is a delicate fish, which is killed by a very small degree of violence. Whenever it is taken out of the water, even though it seems to have received no hurt, it gives a small squeak, and immediately expires; and though it be thrown instantly back into the water, it never recovers—Hence arises the proverb, as dead as a herring.

‘No conjecture can be made relating to its food. It seems to be nourished by some substance that abounds every where in the sea-water in prodigious quantities, though too minute for observation.—Were it not every where present in the water, the shoals are so great, that those which come last must suffer for want of food, and become lean. This is never taken notice of by fishermen. It is observed, that the stomach contains only a quantity of slimy matter, unless it be very near the spawning-time, when a few small fish are sometimes found in the stomach:

they are then called foul fish, being more full of blood than at other seasons: they never take bait but when in this state, and very seldom then.

Some fanciful people, in order to make the history of their migrations complete, describe them as being led forward by a leader who directs their course, who has been called their king. No such thing is even believed by any of the fishermen.

When a great body of herrings are in the water, they can be distinctly perceived by the smell, as I myself frequently experienced.

They sometimes swim very near the surface, and sometimes at a greater depth, as has been said; but the circumstances that occasion the one or the other have not been observed. It does not depend on the season of the year, nor, by what I could learn, on any observed peculiarity of weather.

At times they seem to take pleasure in rising to the surface of the water, and putting up their noses, and instantly drawing back. This occasions a little pattering noise, like the sound of a few large drops of rain on the water; which is denominated by the natives on the shores they frequent, the play of herrings. It is most usually observed in a still calm evening; and at these times, they are thought not to enter readily into the nets, and therefore it is not thought a favourable indication of the success of the fishery for that night.

But the most wonderful peculiarity relating to the economy of that little fish, was one that I never had an opportunity of observing myself, but which I was assured was a fact, by every person acquainted with the fisheries who spoke with me on that subject. I therefore tell it to the reader as I had it, without contradicting or confirming it, though I rather suspect the opinion has taken its rise from inaccurate observation—It is, say they, a certain fact, that at particular times, in those lochs where herrings abound, a strong smart sound is heard, like the report of a pistol when fired. This sound, it is supposed, is in some inconceivable way produced by the herrings themselves, and is always accounted a certain proof that they are immediately to leave that place. When the sound is heard, or supposed to be heard, it is said the herrings have cracked; and, in that case, it never fails but that the whole are gone before next day. Whatever truth may be in this, there can be no doubt but the herrings frequently withdraw from any loch in a very short time, and leave no vestige of them behind.

Our author, in this part of his work, opposes the opinion of their migration, from numerous observations, and gives a very particular account of the method of catching them.

The Report contains some very important remarks, and deserves great attention from those to whom those whom the conduct of the undertaking is entrusted.

The

The Necessity of founding Villages contiguous to Harbours, for the effectual Establishment of Fisheries on the West Coast of Scotland and the Hebrides. 8vo. 1s. Cadell.

A Plan so obvious, as to catch the fish which swim round the western coasts; one of so great apparent utility, and seemingly so easy to execute, has been retarded by various obstacles. But the obstacles are inseparable from the nature of the scheme, and arise from the political situation, and the state of society on those coasts. They are not seen on a transient view; but, when examined closely, swell to an alarming magnitude. It is with pleasure, however, we announce, that there is a plan in agitation, with the approbation of the committee of the house of commons, for founding villages on the west coasts of Scotland, and its adjacent islands, from a fund to be raised by subscription, and the subscribers are to be incorporated by act of Parliament. This work is designed to assist the plan; and we hope it will effectually promote it. We have already observed, that the necessity of villages, joined to a ready and quick communication, is so obvious, that no step will probably be effectual without such establishment. We approve, therefore, highly of the plan; and hope that a design so truly patriotic will meet with suitable encouragement. The pamphlet before us is written with remarkable candour and perspicuity, and is well adapted for its purpose.

On reviewing Mr. Fall's remarks, we noticed a little partiality for some plans, arising from his peculiar local situation. Those which are selected in the work before us chiefly relate to the circumstances which are improper for an establishment of the western coasts.

Observations on the Acute Dysentery, with the Design of illustrating its Causes and Treatment. By John Rollo, M. D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly.

D^{R.} Rollo is an acute observer, and a diligent enquirer. His opinion of the cause of dysentery, if not quite new, is, in some respects, different from the former systems. He thinks it depends on fever; and that, to produce this form of it, the causes of fever are modified by the concurrence of cold or moisture, which usually affect, even when unaccompanied, the bowels in some degree. The first effect is a spasmodic gripping, with a discharge of blood or mucus from the colon and rectum. The second, an erysipelatous inflammation of the great intestines, extending downwards to the rectum, and up-

wards to the ileum, duodenum, stomach, and fauces, ultimately proving fatal, by inducing gangrene. This is the acute form; but, in the chronic, he seems to think this inflammation induces a preternatural tenderness, perhaps by destroying the villous coat, or little ulcers, difficult to heal. His opinion is supported by the dissection of *recent* cases, which he thinks has hitherto been too much neglected. These show, that the bowels are in an inflamed state; and that the inflammation is not phlogistic, requires no proof. We own, that the author has rendered his system extremely probable.

In some other respects, however, we must differ. He seems to think, that dysentery does not arise from specific contagion, and that it is not contagious. The latter is a dangerous opinion; for it leads us to neglect those cautions which may become highly necessary. But we must add the author's candid remarks. After he has hinted a doubt whether the disease produced by putrid fæces, &c. may not be of a different kind, and brought some facts from Van Swieten and Sir John Pringle, he adds,

‘ By any ambiguity we express on this subject, we only wish, that the facts relating to it may be more carefully inspected. The facts, as they are presently explained by the most respectable medical characters, are in favour of the dysentery becoming, in certain circumstances, contagious. However, we are inclined to think the subject merits a farther investigation.

‘ The dysentery has been shewn to be produced by marsh effluvium, the common cause of intermitting and remitting fevers, only in this disease it is necessarily connected with cold and moisture. The affinity of the dysentery to the intermitting and remitting fevers is indisputable. Therefore it may be naturally imagined, that these fevers, as well as the dysentery, may become, in similar circumstances, contagious.

‘ Have the intermitting and remitting fevers, as arising from marsh effluvium, become in any situation contagious?’

It is in some degree necessary to give our sentiments on this subject, since we are remotely involved in it, by the author having rested his first step on our opinions.

We observed, in our Fifty-sixth Volume, p. 13, that ‘ every disease which arises from contagion, appears to have been the product of a particular country, and to have been carried only, by infection, to others.’ But it does not follow, that infection is confined to *specific* contagion, that is, those contagions which infallibly produce the same disease, and exert their influence once only during an individual's life. The latter circumstance

cumstance must, however, be received with limitation; for it is not strictly true of all contagions which may be termed specific. Dysentery, we think, arises from occasional causes, not from the contagion which we have been speaking of; but our author does not seem to suspect, that there are contagions of other kinds, which do not so certainly produce the several diseases as specific ones, yet really exist, and should be guarded against. The influenza was very probably, in some instances, contagious; putrid fevers are so, and the remitting fevers very certainly infectious, in particular circumstances. The line to be drawn, respecting fevers, is this: where the fluids are morbidly affected, the disease may be communicated, but not otherwise. Hence intermittents, though of the same kind as remittents, cured with the same remedies, and frequently ending in them, are pretty certainly not infectious; nor indeed are the remittents, till they assume a malignant type. This is the line too that we should draw for dysentery. In the earlier states, when it is only a mode of fever, it is probably not infectious: in the inflammatory state, when the secretions are generally increased, and sometimes vitiated, it certainly may be communicated. In many cases, we think accidental fever allows the contagion, before received, an opportunity to exert its deleterious influence; and this effect it produces, in common with every other debilitating power. If Linnæus is right, in thinking the disease arises from insects, it must certainly be in every state infectious*.

Dr. Rollo's practice is very efficacious and judicious. His combination of emetic tartar with opium, oil, and wax, seems a powerful and well adapted remedy. In other respects, he does not very essentially differ from the established practice; but he follows it in its best and most decisive form.

On the whole, we think his pamphlet an useful and instructive one: we wish also, that we could praise his language; but it is greatly deformed with provincial expressions. Why will not authors, who are so well able to instruct, endeavour to please, or at least to avoid disgusting their readers?

Memoirs of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester.
(Concluded, from p. 184.)

IN our examination of the first volume of these Memoirs, we continued to admire the choice of the subjects, as they might lead to an improving instructive conversation; but we

* Vide *Amœnitates Academicæ*, vol. v.

had also additional reasons to think many of the *Memoirs* of too little importance for publication. We need not repeat expressions of regard for similar institutions, or for many of the Members of the Manchester Society; nor will they, we hope, misinterpret our free opinion of their collection, or suspect us of the least disrespect for individuals: we shall, in examining the volume before us, pursue our former method.

N^o I. A brief Comparison of some of the principal Arguments in Favour of public and private Education. By Thomas Barnes, D. D.

II. A Plan for the Improvement and Extension of Liberal Education in Manchester. By the same.

III. Proposals for establishing in Manchester a Plan of Liberal Education for young Men designed for civil and active Life, whether in Trade, or in any of the Professions. By the same.—In the first of these articles this very respectable author considers the question of the preference of public or private schools, with a little partiality to the latter. At last, however, he chuses the middle path, viz. a school of that size which will not check emulation, and one not so large, but that all the boys may be under the master's eye; in which the aspiring genius may not be compelled to follow the slower paces of the dull one. The second and third are very useful essays, and have been attended with considerable advantages. Dr. Barnes proposes an institution, which has since been successfully carried into execution, as an intermediate step between the school and the college, calculated not only for professional men, but those to be engaged in commercial pursuits; designed not only to assist the scholar, but to enlarge the views of the merchant, and at least to afford him, in his occasional retirement from business, a refuge in himself, a source of amusement, or perhaps opportunities of instructing the rest of mankind. The regulations of the college are subjoined, and they seem excellent; nor can we see an objection to the plan, unless it may be fastidiously alledged, that it enlarges the surface, rather than the depths of science, and may infuse that dangerous spirit, 'a little learning.' But this objection can exist only in a formidable shape under injudicious conduct: it should be the object of the professors to awaken curiosity, not to gratify it; and, when they open an extensive landscape, to inform their hearers of the great necessity of the repeated examination of particular parts, if they would reap any advantage from the prospect. These examinations must be the business of the future life. We can add nothing to the Society's present designs; but, while we express our fullest approbation, may suggest

suggest a wish for a more particular publication of their plan, and the syllabus of each course.

IV. On Orichalcum. By the Right Rev. Richard Watson, D. D. F. R. S. &c. &c. Lord Bishop of Landaff.—This article has been examined in the fourth volume of the bishop's Essays.

V. Remarks on the Origin of Vegetable Fixed Alkali, with some collateral Observations on Nitre. By M. Wall, M. D.

VI. Some Account of the Life and Writings of the late Professor Gregory, M. D. F. R. S. By James Johnstone, M. D.

VII. Remarks on the Knowledge of the Ancients respecting Glafs. By Dr. Falconer of Bath.

VIII. On the different Quantities of Rain which fall at different Heights over the same Spot of Ground ; with a Letter from Benjamin Franklin, LL. D. By Thomas Percival, M. D.

IX. Speculations on the perceptive Power of Vegetables. By Thomas Percival, M. D.

X. An experimental Inquiry into the Cause of the permanent Colours of Opake Bodies. By Edward Hufsey Delaval, F. R. S. of the Royal Societies of Upsal and Gottingen, of the Institute of Bologna, &c.—This Inquiry is an important one, and well conducted ; it is a valuable supplement to the author's former work, and extends our knowledge on this intricate subject. It is not quite free from imperfections ; but the accuracy of the principal conclusions is, we think, unimpeachable. We shall not look for trifling blemishes ; but cannot avoid hinting to the author, that the advancement of arts and manufactures is not so strictly connected with that of science as he supposes ; nor is the opinion so properly introduced on a subject, in which we were certainly excelled, when the science of optics was little known. The present object is to examine those properties of permanently coloured substances, by which they operate on the rays of light in producing colours ; and, in the course of the enquiry, he shows that colours are produced by transmitted, not by reflected light ; that vegetable, animal, and mineral coloured matter, is transparent ; and that in bodies, distinguished by various tints, the light is reflected from opake white particles, through transparent colouring. It is impossible to describe the experiments, or the consequences deduced from them, in this place. The former are in general accurate and decisive, the latter clear and natural. The author differs in his principal opinion from sir Isaac Newton, but he derives great assistance from the facts related in the 'Optics,' which are of more consequence, as the author could not be biassed by the opinions of Mr. Delaval.

‘ From

‘ From all these premises (viz. various experiments) it appears that the earth, which forms the solid substance of plants, is white; that it is separable from the colouring matter by several means; that whenever it is either pure and unmixed, or diffused through transparent colourless media, it exhibits its whiteness; and is the only vegetable matter which is endued with a reflective power.

‘ I have hitherto described several cases, in which the white matter of plants may be brought to view, by the removal of the coloured particles which covered it. Its exposure may also be effected by other means.

‘ It is well known that the vapour of burning sulphur whitens red roses. This effect is generally attributed to the vitriolic acid arising from the sulphur. But such an explanation is certainly erroneous, because the vitriolic acid, applied to the roses thus whitened, restores their red colour.

‘ As sulphur is composed only of phlogiston and vitriolic acid, and as the whiteness is not caused by the acid, it is evident that it is effected by the phlogiston.

‘ I exposed several sorts of red and purple flowers to the phlogiston, disengaged from *hepar sulphuris* decomposed by an acid, and to other phlogistic vapours, all of which whitened the flowers. I restored the red colour of each of these, by applying to them indiscriminately, either vegetable or mineral acids.

‘ It appears, from these experiments, that the colouring matter of the flowers is not discharged or removed, but only dissolved, by the phlogiston; and thereby divided into particles too minute to exhibit any colour. In this state, together with the vegetable juice in which they are diffused, they form a colourless transparent covering, through which the white matter of the flowers is seen untinged.’

We have selected this passage as a specimen of the new and important views which this paper opens to us; and, though our readers must thus leap to the conclusion, without an examination of the experiments, they may, we think, rest on their accuracy. It is not, indeed, quite clear, that, in whitening substances by sulphur, the colouring particles, which we own ‘ consist principally of inflammable matter,’ are dissolved, and rendered transparent by the phlogiston*. It is equally probable, and consistent with the other facts, that they form a tertium quid, incapable of transmitting any colour. Manganese and arsenic, with a certain portion of phlogiston, are white; with different portions they are coloured; and, if the sulphuring process is injudiciously conducted, or carried too

* Dephlogisticated marine acid, which *dissolves* the phlogiston, destroys vegetable colours (Schele). See page 330 of this Number.

far,

far, the clear whiteness is frequently destroyed. In either case, the action of acids, by detracting the phlogiston, will restore the colour. The author properly observes, that the action of light has a similar effect; and he might have added, that both methods, viz. sulphuring and exposure to light, if long continued, or frequently repeated, will injure the texture of the substance. In pursuit, however, of his opinion, Mr. Delaval produces some curious facts, and materially elucidates some of the operations of chemistry.

‘Red flowers are whitened by the electric spark, of whose inflammable nature we cannot entertain the least doubt. For the spark itself is a bright flame, and it yields the same smell, which all other phlogistic matters impart.

‘The electric spark in like manner changes the blue infusion of turnsol to red. The effects which it produces on the turnsol, and on red flowers, do not differ from each other, except in degree only. For, when vegetable matter is dissolved, it is changed from blue to red; and when it is farther dissolved, it is divided into particles too minute to exhibit any colour.’

Yet, on the whole, his doctrine is to be received with some limitations. When, for instance, he thinks the effects of fixed air in mixture, are those of a phlogistic, rather than an acid substance, he is, in our opinion, less successful. The qualities of acid and phlogistic are indeed so often combined, that phlogiston, by the best chemists, has been styled an acid; but, that fixed air does not act as an acid, our author argues from its increasing the tendency of alkalies to crystallization, without changing them to neutrals (a fact not sufficiently examined in this article), its tendency to escape from water, and its affinity with air. Much of this kind may be alledged without producing conviction; for we know that, if fixed air be an acid, it is a phlogisticated one; and it is not easy, without many other experiments, to ascertain how many of its effects are owing to one ingredient, and how many to the other. Alkaline air is also a phlogisticated alkali: the concrete salt deflagrates with nitre; the air revives lead, and produces other phlogistic effects; yet we know it to be an alkaline substance, and cannot look on it as pure phlogiston, for it may be saturated with other airs, and produce a neutral, which cannot assume a gaseous form. The author proceeds in his enquiry into the nature of fixed air, and thinks that it differs from phlogisticated air, by its containing an aqueous principle; but, on this subject, we cannot follow him. He then resumes his principal object, and shows, that, in animal and mineral bodies, there is an opaque white substance, from whose reflective powers the transparent coloured matters shine with
their

their peculiar hues. His facts, in this Inquiry, are well chosen, and his arguments are very ingenious.

He next examines the nature of semi-pellucid coloured substances, which appear of one colour, when viewed by incident light, and of another when viewed by transmitted light. In these, as in opaque coloured bodies, he endeavours to show that no reflection is made by the coloured matter, but by white particles only. The observations on the colours of the atmosphere and the sea are very curious; but they are too long for an extract. Nor can we examine our author's observations, in the manner they deserve, within the necessary limits; we must, therefore, be contented with extracting the following 'practical application.'

'The art of dying consists, principally, in covering white substances, from which light is strongly reflected, with transparent coloured media, which, according to their several colours, transmit, more or less copiously, the several rays reflected from the white substances.

'The transparent coloured media themselves reflect no light: and it is evident that, if they yielded their colours by reflecting, instead of transmitting, the rays, the whiteness, or colour of the ground on which they are applied, would not anywise alter, or affect, the colours which they exhibit.

'Such an erroneous conception of the principles of the art, cannot fail greatly to obstruct its progress and improvement. All colouring matter is black, when viewed by incident light; and all substances incline to blackness, in proportion as they are copiously stored with tinging particles.

'The artist, therefore, who confines his inquiries to substances which reflect the light, cannot be successful in his endeavours to discover new dying materials: and, if he is led, by experience, to extend his researches to other substances, his practice contradicts his principles; by which his views are obscured, and bounded within the narrow limits of accidental observation.'

XI. Experiments and Observations on Ferments, and Fermentation; by which a Mode of exciting Fermentation in Malt Liquors, without the Aid of Yeast, is pointed out; with an Attempt to form a new Theory of that Process. By Thomas Henry, F. R. S.—This new ferment is fixed air; and the theory of fermentation, that the process consists in the separation of air of this kind, a decomposition, and a new arrangement of the different ingredients. The opinion is of consequence; but the author will excuse us in thinking this article a hint only for future experiments. At present, it is confessedly in an imperfect state; and even the experiments which seem most decisive, should certainly be repeated in a greater variety of circumstances. He is not aware that, in this operation, much air is absorbed from the atmosphere.

XII. On

XII. On the Origin of Alphabetical Characters. By Gilbert Wakefield. B. A.

XIII. An Essay on Crimes and Punishments. By the Rev. William Turner.—The thirteenth article, though not extended very far, should not be passed over without commendation, for the clearness of the language, and the humanity of the author's design. The first object is to point out an essential difference between moral and political transgressions, with their respective punishments. The second, to offer some remarks on the proportion of punishments to offences. On this subject, we have lately enlarged with sufficient attention. We need not perhaps observe, that Mr. Turner adopts the less severe methods.

XIV. On the Pursuits of Experimental Philosophy. By Thomas Percival, M. D. F. R. S.

XV. Observations on the Influence of Fixed Air on Vegetation; and on the probable Cause of the Difference in the Results of various Experiments made on that Subject. In a Letter from Mr. Thomas Henry, F. R. S. to Thomas Percival, M. D. F. R. S.—The most striking part of the former article, which seems to have occasioned the latter, is the effect of fixed air on vegetation. From many different experiments it is now ascertained, that fixed air, properly applied, not in too great quantity, really favours the growth of plants. The greater part of Dr. Percival's speculations is on the uncertain events of experiments, though repeated with the greatest care.

XVI. Observations on a Thigh Bone of uncommon Length. By Charles White, Esq. F. R. S.

XVII. Meteorological Imaginations and Conjectures. By Benjamin Franklin, LL. D. F. R. S.

XVIII. A short account of an Excursion through the subterraneous Cavern at Paris. By Mr. Thomas White, Member of the Royal Medical Society of Edinburgh, &c.—

For the first building of Paris, it was necessary to get the stone in the environs, and the consumption of it was very considerable. As Paris was enlarged, the suburbs were insensibly built on the ancient quarries, so that, all that you see without is essentially wanting in the earth, for the foundation of the city; hence proceed the frightful cavities, which are at this time found under the houses in several quarters. They stand upon abysses. It would not require a very violent shock to throw back the stones to the place, from whence they have been raised with so much difficulty. Eight men being swallowed up in a gulph one hundred and fifty feet deep, and some other less known accidents, excited at length the vigilance of the police and the government, and, in fact, the buildings of several quarters have been privately propped up; and by this means,

means, a support given to these obscure subterraneous places, which they before wanted.

‘ All the suburbs of St. James’s Harp-street, and even the street of Tournon, stand upon the ancient quarries ; and pillars have been erected to support the weight of the houses. What a subject for reflections, in considering this great city formed, and supported by means absolutely contrary ! These towers, these steeples, the arched roofs of these temples, are so many signs to tell the eye, that we now see in the air, is wanting under our feet.’

This description is a translation from M. Mercier’s *Tableau de Paris* ; but we ought to add, that Mr. White’s account is very interesting and entertaining.

XIX. A Description of a New Instrument for measuring the Specific Gravity of Bodies. By Mr. William Nicholson. — This instrument seems well adapted to the author’s purpose ; we cannot enlarge on it, because it would not be intelligible without the plate.

XX. Memoirs of the late Dr. Bell. By James Currie, M. D.

XXI. A Translation of Dr. Bell’s Thesis, de Physiologia Plantarum. By James Currie, M. D. — These eulogies are a pleasing part of the Manchester collection. Dr. Currie has performed his task with great propriety ; and Dr. Bell’s dissertation deserved a translation. It is a neat account of what has been hitherto delivered by authors and professors, with some improvements. Dr. Bell states his questions with precision, and his remarks on them are clear and determinate. He is a strong advocate for the irritability of vegetables, and imputes many of their motions to this cause : he probably goes too far, when he ascribes feeling and perception to them. Both the regular and occasional motions of the *æschynomene* movens, and of the *dionæa muscipula*, the strong instances adduced to prove a perceptive power, are, pretty clearly, necessary effects of a peculiar construction, in consequence of irritation. That we may not be misunderstood, it is necessary to observe, that we see no foundation for carrying the analogy into the animal kingdom ; various arguments, on the contrary, oppose it.

XXII. Some Observations on the Phenomena which take Place between Oil and Water. By Martin Wall, M. D.

XXIII. Facts and Queries relative to Attraction and Repulsion. By Thomas Percival, M. D.

XXIV. Extracts of Two Letters from Dr. Wall of Oxford to Dr. Percival, in Reply to the foregoing Queries concerning Attraction and Repulsion. — These articles contain reflections on attraction and repulsion. Dr. Wall seems to think, that apparent repulsion is sometimes only elective attraction. Dr.

Percival

Percival argues for the existence of each distinct power. We meet with nothing to tempt us to enlarge on the subject, or any thing of sufficient interest for an extract.

XXV. On the voluntary Power which the Mind is able to exercise over bodily Sensation. By Thomas Barnes, D. D.—We are always pleased with Dr. Barnes, even when we are led to differ from him. Perhaps, after all, the dispute may be about words; but we suspect that he is inaccurate, in thinking that the apparent torpor, the temporary insensibility of the body, while the mind is strongly agitated, are owing to the *power* of the mind *over* bodily sensation. Sensation, strictly speaking, is in the mind; for pain cannot exist in a lacerated or wounded part, since it depends on the nervous continuity between it and the immaterial principle. It is, therefore, an effect in the mind, in consequence of a change in the body; but, if the mind be not susceptible of this effect, no pain can follow. When Dr. Barnes adds to his definition, ‘independently of the will,’ he seems to have produced the difficulty in which he is entangled. In a perfect animal body, the perception is a necessary unavoidable consequence of the impression; so that the volition, which is a power of the mind, is improperly introduced, and it is the only circumstance which leads us to think any activity in the mind itself is necessary to sensation. This has certainly occasioned our author to ask, ‘if the mind has a direct and immediate power of diminishing sensation by mere volition?’ We can answer, decisively, that it has not; and the author’s instances only prove that, as we have said, when the mind is not, from its nature, sensible of the perception, the effect does not follow. The old soldier, in the operation, felt with the same severity as another; but his resolution prevented him from complaining; women, who have very great passive fortitude, often behave, in similar situations, with equal heroism. We must, however, conclude, on the whole, that this article by no means disgraces its author.

XXVI. A Narrative of the Sufferings of a Collier, who was confined more than Seven Days, without Sustenance, and exposed to the Choak-damp in a Coal-Pit not far from Manchester: with Observations on the Effects of Famine; on the Means of alleviating them; and on the Action of foul Air on the Human Body. By Thomas Percival, M.D.—The situation of this poor man was very affecting; but we have nothing very interesting to relate in consequence of it. He died a few hours after he was taken out of the pit, and could not relate any of his sensations during the time he was in it. He thought that

that he had been confined two days only, but that they were very long ones. The following relation is curious.

‘ I have been informed, by a young physician from Geneva, that, when he was a student at Montpellier, he fasted three nights and four days, with no other refreshment than a pint of water daily. His hunger was keen, but never painful, during the first and second days of his abstinence; and the two following days he perceived only a faintness, when he attempted either bodily or mental exertion: a sense of coldness was diffused over his whole frame, but more particularly affected the extremities. His mind was in a very unusual state of pusillanimity; and he experienced a great tendency to tears, whenever he recollected the circumstance which had been the occasion of his fasting. During the whole period, the alvine excretions were suppressed, but not those by the kidney: and at the close of it, his skin became tinged with a shade of yellow. The first food he took was veal broth, which had something of an intoxicating effect, producing a glow of warmth, and raising his spirits, so as to render him ashamed of his despondency.’

Dr. Percival then adduces some observations relating to the effects of famine, and the most probable means of lessening the danger of it, by carrying very nutritive substances in small bulk to sea; or to diminish its effects, for some time, even without food. He concludes with remarks on mephytis, which he thinks chiefly acts on the nervous system; and, as with all poisons of that kind, its danger will be lessened, if slowly and gradually applied. There is much reason to think, that the first effect is really on the nervous system; but it must be also a powerful poison, by preventing the salutary discharge of phlogiston from the lungs, though this is a secondary effect, and not sensible till after some time.

XXVII. Result of some Observations made by Benjamin Rush, M. D. Professor of Chemistry in the University of Philadelphia, during his Attendance as Physician-General of the Military Hospitals of the United States in the late War.— Many of these Observations are common: we shall select two, which are of the less usual kind.

‘ In all those cases where the contagion was received, cold seldom failed to render it active. Whenever an hospital was removed in winter, one half of the patients generally sickened in the way, or soon after their arrival at the place to which they were sent.

‘ The army, when it lay in tents, was always more sickly than when it lay in the open air: it was always more healthy when kept in motion than when it lay in an encampment.’

XXVIII. Containing Extracts from the Minutes of the Society, relative to the Delivery of the Gold and Silver Medals

to Edward Hufley Delaval, Esq. F. R. S. and Mr. Thomas Henry, Junior: with

XXIX. The President's Address to the Chair upon that Occasion.—These minutes we need not enlarge on. The gold medal was properly delivered to Mr. Delaval; the silver one to Mr. Henry. But we must observe, that the president's address is dignified and proper.—Since we have now examined those parts of the volume which we have thought to be most worthy of attention, we shall only add, that, as we have commended an institution so useful and salutary, both in its design and its consequences, we have a wish to render it more completely respectable. Let us then earnestly recommend to their committees, a little more care in the selection of papers; to be less influenced by connexions and friendship; to look on themselves no less the guardians of their brethren's fame, than of the splendor and stability of the Society. It is not by the mass that the discerning eye will estimate its fame; for every imperfect representation, every mistaken fact, will detract from the merit of what is really interesting and valuable. With this advice we shall take our leave, expressing an earnest wish, that we may again meet in better and more prosperous circumstances.

A Treatise on the Maritime Laws of Rhodes. By Alexander C. Schomberg, M. A. 8vo. 2s. Rivington.

THIS Treatise was, at first, intended as one of the illustrations of the Chronological View of the Roman Law; but, as the materials were too copious, and the work exceeded the limits designed for it, the author has now published it as a separate tract. Mr. Schomberg, as usual, displays his learning and his knowledge of the civil law. He enquires into the origin of this famous maritime code, pursues its different fates, and examines its operation in various situations, till he finds its scattered fragments in the Pandects. He traces the new phoenix, from its ashes, in the Amalitan Table; the Consolato del Mare; the Laws of Oleron, enacted by our first Richard, on his return from the Holy Land; the Wisbuy Code; and the compilation of the two last, by the authority of the Hanse towns. In the course of his enquiry, many collateral circumstances of curiosity and use are examined; what relates to the Roman trade and marine; the different situations of Rhodes, in which the code was first composed; one of the fragments of the Rhodian laws, more certainly a part of the ancient system, viz. that which respects the 'ejection' of goods

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to lighten the ship ; the connexion of these laws with the modern practice ; the different claims to the sovereignty of the seas ; and the jurisdiction, as well as the constitution of the court of admiralty.

The origin of the Rhodian laws is confessedly uncertain. The Rhodians were certainly not the earliest navigators. Their great splendor, in this view, was nearly about the age of Homer ; but, at least five hundred years previous to that period, the Cretans were celebrated for their skill in navigation ; near three hundred years after them, we hear of the Lydians ; and almost two hundred years after that time, the Thracians were celebrated as mariners.

‘ But though the Rhodians cannot claim the honour of being the earliest navigators, they have an undoubted right to a much nobler praise, that of being the first legislators of the sea : for there is nothing upon record which can lead us to suppose any of those maritime powers which preceded them had ever appeared in that character. There is, therefore, great truth as well as spirit in the assertion of an ancient jurist—“ That to erect as it were a throne for justice, on the ocean, and to teach her to regulate the transactions of man on that unstable element, with the same firmness and precision as on land, was a grand and an original idea of the Rhodians.” It is impossible to fix, with any certainty, the precise time when these celebrated sea-laws were first compiled. Harmenopolus of Thessalonica, a juridical writer of the twelfth century, gives them the pre-eminence over all others as well in antiquity as authority, but does not tell us at what period they first appeared. The most general opinion seems to be that they were probably compiled about nine centuries before the Christian æra, or soon after that time, when, as we have already seen, Rhodes first acquired the superiority on the seas, and maintained it for the space of twenty-four years. There are some indeed who have called in question their great antiquity, attributing them to that age when the city of Rhodes was founded ; which, according to Strabo, was in the days of the administration of Pericles at Athens, consequently five centuries later than is usually conceived. But the geographer, in the very chapter which contains this information, seems to have been aware that a conjecture of this sort might arise, and therefore warps his readers not to date the naval skill of the Rhodians from this event ; for, says he, they were very famous as a sea-faring people, even before the institution of the Olympiads. After all, as there is no express authority for the date of these laws, this part of their history must rest solely upon conjecture ; nor can we boast of much accurate information on a point of greater moment, the time of their reception at Rome, and the degree of influence they held there ; though here indeed our authorities are somewhat more clear and satisfactory.’

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The first public introduction of these laws into Rome is placed in the reign of Tiberius Claudius, in the consulship of Q. Aterius Antoninus, and D. Junius Silanus, A. D. 55; though different parts of the code were certainly known, and observed in Rome, before that period. Their influence seems to have been for a long time merely conditional, and to have depended on a renewal of the imperial sanction, till they were incorporated in the Pandects, and scattered in the different parts of that immense compilation, involved in the doubts, and obscured by the commentaries of different jurists: as a separate body of law they exist no longer.

It is a little remarkable, among the various interpretations, and we may add, the very trifling remarks of some commentators on the following passage, that our author has not enlarged on the noble one, which the pointing justifies, and the great character of the emperor renders probably just.

‘It is a rescript of Antoninus Pius, in answer to a petition of Eudæmon, a merchant of Nicomedia, to that emperor, wherein he states, that being shipwrecked among the Cyclades, his property was seized upon by the officers of revenue. He addresses the emperor by the title of sovereign, *κύριος*, and he is answered in the true spirit of a Roman, who considered the world as one country, of which Rome was the principal city. *Εγώ μιν τῆ κοσμοῦ κύριος ἰδὲ νόμος τῆς θαλάσσης. Τῶ νόμῳ τῶν Ῥωμαίων κρινέσθω τῶ ναυτικῷ.* “I am sovereign of the world, it is true, nevertheless controversies at sea must be determined by the maritime laws of Rhodes, except (as he adds) in cases where they contradict our own laws.”

An obvious interpretation certainly is, ‘I am lord of the world, but the sea is under the jurisdiction of the laws. Let the cause be determined by the naval code of Rhodes.’ The antithesis is pointed and beautiful. The subsequent part, so far from lessening the credit of the Rhodian laws at Rome, strongly confirms it; nor can the emperor, who establishes the authority of a code, and decides by it, be supposed to give up the dominion of the sea. Petit suggests *ἀνέμους*, instead of *νόμος*; but if this reading were the true one, Antonine should have referred to Æolus for the decision: it destroys the whole force and meaning of the passage.

We shall select the most interesting part of our author’s observations on the sovereignty of the sea: we mean the most interesting to ourselves.

‘For what regards our own country in this dispute, it may be proved, by many ancient records, and by a series of undeniable evidence, brought down through various ages, that the kings of England did very early claim to be, and were acknow-

ledged sovereigns of the sea, so much of it at least, as is the object of the controversy. 4 Instit. 142. Selden. Mare Clausum. c. 27. For I apprehend the warmest advocates for exclusive privilege thereon, never attempted to extend it either to the Atlantic, or the Southern Ocean. Thus king Edgar is said *quatuor maria vindicare*, and sir J. Burroughs cites a record in the Tower, having for its title "Of the Sovereignty of the English Seas, and the Office of Admiral thereon." Sovereignty of the British Seas asserted, p. 7. and Edward III. calls himself and his predecessors, "*Domini Maris Anglicani circumquaque et etiam Defensores*," Selden, notes on Fortesc. c. 32. The extent of this dominion was particularly ascertained by a treaty at Westm. Feb. 9, 1673-4, to be from Cape Finisterre, to the middle point of the land Van Staten in Norway.'

The present maritime law of England is an heterogeneous compound of dissimilar materials. It is quite consonant to the principles of equity, but adapted to situations more various and complicated than the ancient world probably ever knew. The laws of Oleron are still its basis; and indeed Richard wants only an able biographer to establish his character as a warrior and a legislator, as an accomplished knight in the tournament, and an elegant poet in the palace. Some additions are made from the Rhodian and the Roman laws; limitations are added from peculiar customs and privileges; modifications and corrections from different situations, or particular emergencies; and the whole code does not disgrace the English system of jurisprudence.

'The first case in our law, extant, relative to marine jurisdiction, occurs in the reign of Edward I. and is preserved in an old record in the Tower, which speaks of the king's sovereignty on the seas, and the jurisdiction of his deputy, the admiral, as being, even then, *du temps dont il ny a de memoire*.'

As in this first instance, the sovereignty is traced to a period beyond the reach of memory, we will hope that the termination, on the other hand, may be beyond the reach of prophecy. It is this attention to our marine that must establish our political consequence; and its prosperity can only be increased by the increase of commerce. The extent it will admit of is indeterminate: reason and imagination are equally unable to ascertain the size to which the bubble may be blown: experience is yet deficient, for it has only informed us, that it adds to the riches as well as power of a state; and that its extension has hitherto been accompanied by the proportional extension of each.

The Letters of Charlotte, during her Connexion with Werter.
2 Vols. Small 8vo. 5s. sewed. Cadell.

‘ I Am happy that in presenting the following Letters to the public, I am not exhibiting scenes, or communicating opinions, that can wound delicacy, or pervert sentiment. And though I too well know, that to avoid licentious description, and to reject fashionable ideas, is to wander far from the road that leads to wealth and fame in the literary world, yet I am not willing to acquire either one or the other at the expence of my reader’s happiness. If amusement only is to be found in the Letters of Charlotte, it will at least be innocent amusement. If opinions are advanced which may appear uncommon, they will not be found to militate against the precepts of religion. If the mind of the reader is not expanded by additional knowledge, it will not be contracted by the subtleties of scepticism.’

The editor introduces himself with so much good sense, such grace and decorum, that we were unwilling even to announce him, till he had explained his own pretensions. We shall only add, that he has very faithfully performed his promise. The author, we beg pardon, we mean the editor, for we would not rudely pull aside the mask which he has chosen to wear: the editor, then, enlarges on the pernicious tendency of the ‘ Sorrows of Werter,’ in elegant language, and exposes the injury which the untutored mind may receive from sophistry so guarded, with great force of reason. We think this preface should be re-printed with that dangerous work, which conveys poison under a gilded and seducing outside. The Letters themselves describe the feelings of Charlotte; the different incidents are frequently those of Werter, with the variations, arising from the mind which perceives, and the pen which describes them. Charlotte appears, in these volumes, to have loved Werter; and it should be a lesson to both sexes, not to indulge that ardent friendship, which may so soon slide into a more embarrassing, perhaps a guilty passion. The little adventures of Charlotte’s friends are introduced to fill up the landscape.

We have said that the Letters are elegant; they are also amusing; and trace, with accuracy, the intricate windings of the human mind, the labyrinth of the heart. As a specimen, we shall select the fourteenth Letter.

‘ It seldom happens that the language of panegyric is just; yet so excellent is your judgment, that I cannot withhold my assent to the character you have drawn of Werter; but, give me leave to tell you, the picture is not finished, and that another dash of the pencil—a dark shade—is wanting to perfect the likeness.

‘ You have seen Werter only with others. Notwithstanding his philosophic reasonings, and the apparent complacency of his disposition, he is the very slave of a temper naturally impetuous, and, if I may so express it, rarified by irritability of nerves, and extreme delicacy, or, at least, peculiarity of taste.

‘ You will, perhaps, smile at my idea, that extreme delicacy of taste is injurious to the temper; and you will tell me, that true taste not only refines the understanding, but meliorates the disposition. Much certainly depends on the natural tendency of the temper; and extreme delicacy of taste in one of a cynical turn, will by no means diminish a propensity to querulous fastidiousness: on the contrary, it will add fuel to the flame of intellectual discontent, in proportion as the taste is offended, and the feelings are hurt, by the obtrusions of incongruity, and the absurdities of ignorance.

‘ I cannot call Werter a cynic; but his infirmity of temper is augmented by his delicacy of taste, and the most trifling occurrences make lasting impressions on his mind. He has little command over himself; and whilst his natural temper thus overpowers him, how will he stem the torrent of passion? like the exuberance of his imagination, it will know no bounds: as the one is the source of his most exalted pleasures, so the other, I fear, will prove the cause of his severest afflictions.’

The descriptive powers of the author are considerable: we often admire them; and his pathos melts and amends the heart. In the following Letter they are combined, and this circumstance has induced us to extract it.

‘ The evening was serene: there was that kind of stillness in the air, which inspires melancholy musings, and fills the mind with philosophic tranquillity. The moon was rising, and by her wan lustre, discovered the grey mists slowly ascending from the lakes on my right hand; whilst the woody mountains on my left, were charmingly diversified with innumerable lights and shades.—“ This scene,” I said to myself, “ this scene, dearest of mothers! is sacred to thee: under the shade of these elms, how often have I been blessed with thy blessing!—how often received the instructions of true wisdom!”—The remembrance of those endearing moments filled my eyes with tears: lifting them towards heaven, I could not help uttering aloud one of those spontaneous ejaculations of the heart which draw down blessings, and dissipate distress. My tears relieved me, and the recollection of having obeyed her sacred, her last commands, restored to my mind a melancholy tranquillity.

‘ Turning my eyes towards the mountains, I discovered a man approaching me in great haste. His head was uncovered, and he had the dry stalk of a weed in his hand; the moon shone on his face, and I saw it was the unfortunate Henry, whose passion for me had deprived him of reason. I was extremely terrified; and he came with so much precipitation, that it was im-

impossible for me to escape, for I was at the upper end of the avenue.—I, therefore, stood still.—Poor wretch! I had no occasion to be alarmed; he knew me not; but, looking earnestly in my face, asked me, where his Charlotte was?—"She is not at home," I said.—"I know that," replied he, "I looked all over the hills for her, and she is not there.—She was with me last night, and then I shewed her the moon, and played upon this pipe—her eyes danced—it was on the high hill, and we talked to the moon. When the States pay me, I shall buy the golden stars for my Charlotte."—He smiled as he uttered this. "Go thy ways home, Henry," I said.—He burst into tears, and I was afraid he recollected me.—"No," said he, with a heavy sigh, and a faint voice, "I am no Henry." Folding his hands together, and again looking stedfastly in my face, whilst the tears ran down his own, he said, "There is no Henry—Henry died when the wind whistled in the great tree, and the white clouds took Charlotte to the stars."—He turned his eyes towards the sky, and never saw I so true a picture of settled melancholy: there was a wonderful expression of sadness in his countenance.—"Alas, poor youth!" I said, "go home to thy mother."—He again looked at me with great earnestness, and, in a kind of half whisper, said, "These things must not be known to the princess; she will be angry when she knows Henry is dead, and there are no flowers—hush!—the moon whispers to Charlotte;—I must go"—Then, putting the forefinger of each hand to his lips, he stepped slowly away, as one walks across a room where others are asleep.

I saw him at a considerable distance, going in the same manner, till he entered the wood. The air grew cold, and the wind began to rise. I returned home with a mind full of melancholy reflections.—Poor youth! may he—who alone is able—restore thee to thyself, and give thee that sweet peace which forms the sovereign balm to all afflicted minds!

We have enlarged the space we usually allow for extracts, to give a proper specimen of the variety to be found in these Letters, which we think contain the seducing tenderness of Werter, without its danger; which raise the feelings in a whirlwind, without hurrying the judgment along with them, and driving the reader, perhaps smarting from recent, from similar disappointments, into the same destructive abyss.

Essay III. On the Nature and Principles of Public Credit. 8vo.
2s. White.

WE reviewed the First Essay of our able and attentive author, in the Fifty-seventh Volume, page 107; and the Second in the Fifty-ninth, page 268. We did not follow Mr. Gales' Essays very minutely, because the reasoning is so close, and the language so concise, that they would not readily ad-

mit of an abridgement. The third is more of a practical kind, and we shall give a short analysis of it.

The first section is of little consequence to us. It relates to some difference in opinion between our author and the Monthly Reviewers. The second section is on the Nature and State of the Public Debts of this Kingdom, and includes our author's plan for their gradual payment. Mr. Gale mentions the regular effect of a sinking fund, applied at proper intervals, in diminishing the debt: its power would necessarily increase in a geometrical progression, because it must be calculated at compound interest. But, from the effect of payment in raising the value of the stocks, the ratio will be greatly lessened; and to avoid this loss, our author advises that a plan be adopted, which shall, from its nature, fix the price to be paid for redemption, and leave at the same time a free and secure capacity for the stocks, appertaining to the creditors, to rise in value. It seems to be his meaning, to increase the annuity in proportion to the number of years required; and, at the end of that time, that the interest should cease: in short, that a certain proportion of the stocks be converted into annuities for a limited term of years. We think this plan more effectual than that at present adopted, for the reasons stated in our review of the Second Essay, in the Fifty-ninth Volume. The author adds many arguments for his scheme, and varies the view of the subject, so as to render it more easily understood.

The third section is a more particular account of the plan, of which we shall insert the author's own analysis.

' First. To convert the public debts into a 5 per cent. stock, by offering to the creditors, a certain proportion of such five per cent. stock, in exchange for their present stocks and annuities.

' Secondly. To secure the new stock from a reduction of the interest; by making it liable only to a periodical tender for its redemption, equal to the annuity.

' Thirdly. To provide for the conveniencies of those to whom the periodical redemption might be inconvenient; by allowing a suspension of the tender on certain fixed principles.

' Fourthly. To provide for the conveniencies of those whose situations and circumstances might be such as to require temporary annuities, for lives or years; by allowing a transcrip-
tion of the redeemable stock into such temporary annuities, on certain fixed principles, according to their respective values.

' Fifthly. To give a farther general encouragement for the conversion of the debt; by granting a preference, in all future loans, to the holders or proprietors of the new stock.'

We

We might accuse the author of a want of candour in not explaining the whole of the subject; but as *little* remains, and the subject has been elucidated with great *labour*, he hopes that this little may produce some advantage to the labourer. We do not altogether approve of this conduct, though we confess that Mr. Gale deserves public encouragement. At this moment, however, we see that his expectations are frustrated, and that other methods are preferred, methods probably less advantageous than those before us. But this is not now our object: we leave our author with good wishes; and, though a volunteer in the service, we think rewards have been more undeservedly bestowed than on the present literary financier.

A Poem, on the Happiness of America; addressed to the Citizens of the United States. By David Humphreys, Esq. 4to. 2s. Newbery.

FICTION, by the testimony of Waller, is better adapted and more favourable to the genius of poetic composition than truth. Whether *the felicity*, which is the subject of the present poem, stands in that predicament, the inhabitants on the other side the Atlantic can best determine. Whatever their opinions in general may be, Mr. Humphreys seems thoroughly persuaded of its existence; and strongly impressed with the idea, exhibits his country, as

‘ Spreading her virgin charms abroad,
The last, the fairest offspring of a God!’

and the virtues of his countrymen, in the most favourable point of view, and the most vivid colours. The fervor of his zeal, indeed, sometimes betrays him into a few honest mistakes and exaggerations, that a cooler, and less enthusiastic panegyrist, would certainly have avoided.

‘ Where lives the nation fraught with such resource,
Such vast materials for a naval force?
Where grow so rife the iron, masts, and spars,
The hemp, the timber, and the daring tars?’

From this heterogeneous mixture, one would be tempted to suppose that men, metals, and trees, were the common product of the soil, and grew faster than in other countries, particularly the former.

‘ But men, Columbia, be thy fairer growth!’

This gentleman’s conceptions, indeed, of its future grandeur are frequently so brilliant and dazzling, as to render his meaning scarce perceptible.

‘ Anon

' Anon shall new Auroras rise,
And streaming, brighten up th' Atlantic skies,
Back on the solar path with living ray,
Pour heav'n's own splendours in a tide of day.'
' Your tall fleets shall lift their *starry pride* !'

And again,

' Thy rising stars in unknown skies display,
And bound thy labours with the *walks of day*.
' Bid from thy shore a philanthropic band,
The *torch of science* glowing in their hand,
O'er trackless waves extend their daring toils,
To find and bless a thousand peopled isles.'—

A period is suddenly put to this ideal dissemination of literature; and the prospect of bliss somewhat darkened by Mr. Humphreys' reflecting on the captures lately made of American vessels by the pirates of Algiers; whom he execrates with as much spirit as he panegyrises his countrymen. Not even the Digest of Ernulphus affords a more energetic and comprehensive anathema than the following.

' Infernal furies on those monsters haunt !
Pursue the foot-steps of that miscreant crew,
Pursue in flames, with hell-born rage pursue !
Shed such dire curses as all utt'rance mock,
Whose plagues astonish, and whose horrors shock !
Great maledictions of eternal wrath,
Which, like Heav'n's vial'd vengeance, singe and scathe !
Transfix with scorpion-stings the callous heart,
Make blood-shot eye-balls from their sockets start,
For balm, pour brimstone in their wounded soul,
Then ope perdition and engulf them whole !'

After an animated apostrophe to the European powers who pay an ignominious tribute to the states of Barbary, the length of which only prevents our inserting it, the author exhorts his countrymen to speedy vengeance, and consoles himself with the idea of its accomplishment.

' Woe to proud Algiers; to your princes woe !
Your pride is falling with your youths laid low—
Woe to ye people, woe, distress, and fears !
Your hour is come to drink the cup of tears :
Pangs of th' undying worm corrode your reins,
Consume your marrow, revel round your veins,
Burst rigid sinews, quiv'ring fibres swell,
And give the torments of the fiends in hell !
A ghastly paleness gathers on your cheeks,
While mem'ry haunts your ears with captive shrieks ;
Then stifled conscience wakening dares to cry ;
" Think on your crimson crimes, despair, and die."—
Then ruin comes with fire, and sword, and blood,
And men shall ask where once your cities stood.'

To

To the Muse's prescient eye things future may be allowed to appear as present, or already accomplished, yet to cool prosaic reflection many difficulties arise, that will probably retard, for a considerable time, the completion of this great event, as well as the appearance of another golden age, or rather the millennium, with which the poem concludes; and, after the destruction of these nations, is to be introduced under the auspices of American prowess and philanthropy.

' Then glorious days, by *hallow'd bards* foretold,
 Shall far surpass the fabled age of gold,
 The human mind its noblest pow'rs display,
 And knowledge rising to meridian day,
 Shine like the lib'ral sun—th' illumin'd youths
 By fair discussion find immortal truths.
 Why turns th' horizon red? the dawn is near—
 Infants of light, ye harbingers appear!
 With ten-fold brightness gild the happier age,
 And light the actors o'er a broader stage!
 This drama closing—see! towards its end,
 High Heav'n's perennial year to earth descend!
 Then wake, Columbians! fav'rites of the skies
 Awake to glory, and to rapture rise!
 Behold the dawn of your ascending fame,
 Illume the nations with a purer flame,
 Progressive splendours spread o'er ev'ry clime!—
 Then wrapt in visions of unfolding time,
 Pierce midnight clouds that hide his dark abyss,
 And see in embryo scenes of future bliss!
 See days and months and years there roll in night,
 While age succeeding age ascends to light,
 'Till your blest offspring, countless as the stars,
 In open ocean quench the torch of wars;
 With godlike aim, in one firm union bind,
 The common good and int'rests of mankind;
 Unbar the gates of commerce for their race,
 And build the gen'ral peace on freedom's base!'

We know not whether these 'hallow'd bards' are merely the offspring of fancy, or whether those *sacri vates*, the Connecticut preachers of old times, who predicted that New England should convert and subject all nations, are meant by that appellation. If its inhabitants still entertain that opinion, they will engage the disciples of Mahomet on a fair footing. However that may be, we concur with Mr. Humphreys in wishing the speedy completion of his prophecy, so far as that all nations may be joined in the bonds of peace and amity: but he must excuse us, if we entertain some doubt of its being effected by the interference of his countrymen—at least till union is more firmly established among themselves.

Natural History general and particular, by the Count de Buffon. Translated into English. Illustrated with about 260 Copper-plates, and occasional Notes and Observations by the Translator. Second Edition. 9 Vols. 8vo. 3l. 3s. Cadell.

IN our Fifty-fourth Volume, p. 371, we reviewed the first edition of this useful translation, and now mention the second edition of it, chiefly to give some account of the supplementary volume. The first supplement of this author was published in 1776, and the second some years after: the former was incorporated with the first edition of the translation, and the latter is now joined to it, and sold also separately to the purchasers of the first edition. The additions and corrections are very miscellaneous: they add greatly to the author's character as a candid and inquisitive philosopher; and have been long collecting, since some of them are of a distant date. The changes in the last supplement chiefly relate to the history and theory of the earth; and these may probably be succeeded by corrections in the other branches of his history: many imperfections have been freely pointed out by later authors.

The count de Buffon may be considered as the ablest naturalist of the old school. Whatever may be his opinion of the first formation of the earth, he has attributed the successive changes in its state chiefly to the agency of water; but he now begins to be more attentive to the effects of fire: indeed it is only by uniting these two almost irresistible powers, that we can explain the great variety of appearances offered continually to the eye of an experienced mineralogist, and an attentive observer. The first additions relate to the article concerning the formation of the planets. It is unnecessary to add that, though the opinion be visionary, or at least uncertain in its foundation, many valuable facts are collected in this part of the work. The next additions are to the article of geography, and the production of strata. In the latter subject, he still adheres to the formation of mountains by the subsiding of the adjoining earth: we shall select the observations on the hills of Peru as curious, and, in a great degree, new.

The banks and beds of the earth in Peru are perfectly horizontal, and correspond sometimes at a great distance in different mountains, most of which are two or three hundred fathoms high. They are in general inaccessible, and often as perpendicular as walls, which gives us an opportunity of perceiving the extremities of their horizontal strata. When any of them happens to be round and detached from others, each bed appears like a very flat cylinder, or as a section of a cone of

of no great height. These different beds, placed one above another, and distinguished by their colour and various contours, often resemble a regular and artificial structure. In this country, we see the mountains perpetually assuming the appearance of ancient and sumptuous palaces, of chapels, of castles, and of domes. They are sometimes fortifications composed of long curtains, and defended with bulwarks. After examining these objects, and the correspondence of their strata, we can hardly entertain a doubt, that the circumjacent land has not, at some period, been really sunk. It appears, that those mountains, whose bases were most solidly supported, remained as monuments to indicate the height which the soil of these countries anciently possessed.

The facts next adduced are additions to those observations on the beds of shells found in the highest mountains; and answers to some objections against the opinion, that they are really sea-shells, are subjoined.

The next subject is on Mountains, and their Formation. Our author corrects his former opinion, that *all* calcareous masses are formed by the deposition of water; and thinks that some of them are hardened, perhaps vitrified, by fire; but that these two kinds can be easily distinguished. Ferrugineous matter adds greatly to the hardness: a fact fully evinced by Mr. Wedgwood's compositions.

On the Theory of running Waters our author observes, that, with the same quantity of water, the celerity of a wheel, which is moved by it, is increased in proportion to the height from which the water falls; its influence is said also to be greater in the night than in the day. The reason of the first fact is obvious, and the second is easily explained; for a certain bulk of water can only pass the trough in a given time; so that when the density of the water is increased, its passage will be more easy from the diminution of its bulk; consequently its fall will be more rapid, and the momentum increased: the effects of wheel-work are increased $\frac{1}{2}$ by employing the machine in the night only. A wheel nearer to the canal also turns with greater velocity than one more distant.

In the additions to the article of Seas and Lakes, is a very curious communication from mons. Deslandes, in which he not only ascertains, by a simple and decisive experiment, the existence of double currents in the sea, but endeavours to apply it to the assistance of navigation. He shows too, in the same way, what from different views we have endeavoured to establish, that the momentum of the Atlantic is directed to the north-west. Our readers will recollect, that we chiefly argued from the direction of bays and harbours, evidently
formed

formed by an incroaching sea. Some just remarks follow, on the improbability of a north-west passage.

The article on the Caspian Sea is a very interesting one : monf. de Buffon had said, that it was a lake only; and never had any communication with the ocean. He received the following answers from the Academy of St. Petersburg to some queries which he sent ; and these, he thinks, confirm his opinion.

“ Augusto 1748, October 5, &c. Cancellaria Academiæ Scientiarum mandavit, ut Astrachanensis Gubernii Cancellaria responderet ad sequentia. 1. Suntne vortices in mari Caspico necne ! 2. Quæ genera piscium illud inhabitant ! Quomodo appellantur ! Et an marini tantum aut et fluviatiles ibidem reperiantur ! 3. Qualia genera concharum ! Quæ species ostrearum et cancrorum occurrunt ! 4. Quæ genera marinarum avium in ipso mari aut circa illud versantur ! ad quæ Astrachensis Cancellaria d. 13 Mart. 1749, sequentibus respondit.

‘ Ad 1. in mari Caspico vortices occurrunt nusquam ; hinc est quod nec in mappis marinis extant, nec ab ullo officialium rei navalis visi esse perhibentur.

‘ Ad 2. pisces Caspium mare inhabitant ; acipenser, Sturioli, Gmel, Siruli Cyprini clavati, Bramæ, Percæ, Cyprini ventre acuto, ignoti alibi pisces, tinæ, salmones, qui, ut e mari fluvios intrare, ita et in mare e fluviis remeare solent ;

‘ Ad 3. conchæ in littoribus maris obviæ quidem sunt, sed parvæ, candidæ, aut ex una parte rubræ. Cancræ ad littora observantur magnitudine fluviatilibus similes ; ostreæ autem et capita Medusæ visa sunt nusquam ;

‘ Ad 4. aves marinæ quæ circa mare Caspium versantur sunt anseres vulgares et rubri, pellicani, cygni, anates rubræ et nigricantes, aquilæ, corvi aquatici, grues, plateæ, ardæ albæ, cineræ, et nigricantes, ciconiæ albæ gruibus similes, Karawaiki (ignotum avis nomen) larorum variæ species, sturni nigri et lateribus albis instar picarum, physiani, anseres parvi nigricantes, Tudaki (ignotum avis nomen) albo colore præditi.’

Though much information may be derived from this account, it is not, we think, quite satisfactory.—Let us transcribe the observations of M. Pallas, quoted in a subsequent part of the volume.

“ In traversing, says M. Pallas, the immense deserts which lie between the Wolga, the Jaïk, the Caspian Sea, and the Don, I observed, that these steppes or sandy deserts, are every way surrounded with an elevated border, which embraces a great part of the beds of the Jaïk, Wolga, and Don ; and that these deep rivers, before they penetrated this inclosing belt, were full of islands and shoals, till they began to fall into the deserts where the great river Kuman loses itself in the sands. From these observations I conclude, that the Caspian sea has formerly

formerly covered all these deserts; that it anciently had no other margins than those elevated belts which every where surround the deserts; and that it has communicated, by means of the Don, with the Black Sea, even supposing this sea, as well as that of Azoff, had never made a part of it.'

The next subject is curious, but we cannot enlarge on it, viz. on the inequality in the bottom of the sea, and on currents in the ocean. In the article on Winds and Air, M. de Buffon brings several strong arguments to show that air is not really so much more rare on the top of mountains as we have supposed. The weight which it bears is evidently less, but the rarity, from a diminution of weight, is compensated by an increased density from cold. The following additions are on irregular Winds and Water-spouts.

The additions which relate to Earthquakes and Volcanos, are very necessary ones; but they contain nothing which deserves our more particular attention at present. Then follow some remarks on Caverns, viz. the original ones formed by *primæval fire*, (when the earth, for instance, was struck off from the sun.) The sinking of these caverns forms, in our author's opinion, the basis or reservoir which now holds the sea, and which was, by this means, drained off from the higher lands. From the existence of sea-shells, M. de Buffon thinks, that it once rose two thousand fathoms above its present level, and probably higher, though its heat was then too great to allow of the existence of animated beings, from whose exuvizæ we are only now able to trace its height. We need not remind our readers, that other philosophers, perhaps with greater reason, suppose these beds of shells to have been raised, instead of the bed of the sea having been sunk.

The new Observations on the Effects of Rain on Marshes, on subterraneous Wood and Water, have a better foundation; but we can mention only the most interesting parts of this very miscellaneous volume, and must therefore omit many of those on the subjects just mentioned. Yet our readers ought to be apprised, since we may have some occasion to allude to it, that the count, from the appearance of fossil bones, endeavours to show, that the earth has gradually cooled; and that the higher latitudes were consequently once the habitation of beasts, which are now confined to the tropics, or of others, to which even the present vertical sun does not afford heat enough for the continuation of the species. Facts more general, and equally powerful, may be adduced, in the opinion of other philosophers, to shew that the zones, now called temperate, were formerly much colder than at present.

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The Epochs of Nature, a work published by M. de Buffon, is the offspring of a brilliant fancy, supported by extensive researches, and great knowledge. We have already mentioned, in the beginning of this article, that our author's opinion on the formation of the planets, though visionary, was illustrated by facts of real importance. The same may be alledged of the Epochs of Nature; and the following are the facts which the count endeavours, with very unequal success, to illustrate and support: they are preparatory to his other opinions.

‘ First fact,—The earth is elevated at the equator, and depressed at the poles, in the proportion required by the laws of gravity, and of the centrifugal force.

‘ Second fact,—The earth possesses an internal heat which is proper to itself, and independent of that communicated to it by the rays of the sun.

‘ Third fact,—The heat conveyed to the earth by the sun is very small when compared with the heat proper to the globe; and this heat transmitted by the sun would not alone be sufficient to support animated nature.

‘ Fourth fact,—The materials of which the earth is composed are, in general, of a vitreous nature, and the whole of them may be converted into glass.

‘ Fifth fact,—We find on the whole surface of the earth, and even on the mountains, to the height of 1500 and 2000 fathoms, an immense quantity of shells and other relicks of marine productions.’

The count then proceeds to enumerate what he calls the Epochs of Nature, or those periods which are distinguished by some remarkable changes in the condition of this planet. These are

‘ Epoch first,—When the earth and planets first assumed their proper form.

‘ Epoch second,—When the fluid matter consolidated, and formed the interior rock of the globe, as well as those great vitrifiable masses which appear on its surface.

‘ Epoch third, When the waters covered all the continents.

‘ Epoch fourth,—When the waters retired and volcanos began to act.

‘ Epoch fifth,—When the elephants, and other animals of the south, inhabited the northern regions.

‘ Epoch sixth,—When the continents were separated from each other.

‘ Epoch seventh, and last,—When the power of man assisted the operations of nature.’

The translator has abridged the Epochs of Nature, and inserted only the facts in their support. We first suspected that
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this step would have been injurious to his author, since we well knew that the charms of the count's eloquence had given grace to what was already known, probably to doubtful opinions, and an uncommon brilliancy to truth. We found, however, that, though visionary, many well established facts supported his system; and, though in many respects erroneous, yet, in the examination, much new light was acquired, and the operations of nature were often elucidated. We cannot abridge facts, nor can we select any with advantage; but the vitrifiable mass, which the count mentions in the second epoch, is particularly explained in his beautiful, but doubtful, *System of Mineralogy*. We hope that our numerous engagements to the public will not prevent us from examining this work at more leisure: we must at present conclude with thanking the translator for this useful addition to the natural history, and for his liberality in the method of publication.

Observations on Mr. Pitt's Plan for the Reduction of the National Debt. By Charles Earl Stanhope, F. R. S. 4to. 2s. Elmsly.

THE means of discharging the public debt is a subject of so great importance to the nation, that every proposal for this purpose ought not only to be written with the most dispassionate temper, but examined with the strictest impartiality. Those who engage in so arduous an enquiry ought likewise to be extremely careful of the principles on which they proceed; lest, with the best intentions of discovering the truth, it should be found that they have been entirely misguided by illusion. With every possible circumspection, the minds of few men are sufficiently capacious for comprehending an object of such magnitude. The task requires a clear conception, an extensive knowledge of finance, and, exclusive of a competent proficiency in arithmetical calculation, an understanding that is strongly guarded against all fallaciousness of induction. Where these requisite endowments are deficient, we may still regard with approbation the industry of the enquirer, should he seem to have been actuated by laudable motives; but at the same time we must regret the temerity that prompted his exertion, especially when it tends to disseminate error, and obstruct such measures as are best calculated for promoting the good of the public.

Impressed with the force of these sentiments, and divested of every prejudice, we shall proceed to examine the Observations of the noble lord which now lye before us, and which, we are sorry to remark, betray an appearance of asperity and want of candour, unsuitable to impartial enquiry concerning

a political question of the utmost moment to the state. That our readers may thoroughly understand the subject of his lordship's Observations, it will be necessary to present them with the account which he has given of Mr. Pitt's plan for the payment of the national debt.

‘ § 2. The plan to which I allude, as it appears by the bill which is now before the house of commons, and which (having already passed the committee) has been printed with the amendments, is simply as follows, viz.

‘ It is proposed by that bill, that, at the end of every quarter of a year, ending the fifth day of January, the fifth day of April, the fifth day of July, and the tenth day of October in every year, there shall be issued or set apart, at his majesty's receipt of Exchequer, out of the surplusses, excesses, and overplus monies composing the sinking fund, a sum of two hundred and fifty thousand pounds; and if there shall not be sufficient money for that purpose in any particular quarter, the bill provides for the making good such deficiency in the following manner; namely, the deficiency of one quarter is to be made good out of the said surplusses, excesses, and overplus monies of the next quarter, and so forth to the end of the year; and, at the end of the year (ending the fifth day of January), the amount of such deficiency or deficiencies is proposed to be made good out of the aids or supplies which shall be, or which shall have been, granted by parliament for the service of the then current year.

‘ § 3. The monies set apart in the manner above mentioned are directed by the bill to be forthwith issued and paid to the governor and company of the bank of England, and to be by them placed in their books to the account of six commissioners appointed by the bill; which commissioners are to be the speaker of the house of commons, the chancellor of his majesty's Exchequer, the master of the rolls, the accountant-general of the court of chancery, and the governor and deputy-governor of the bank of England for the time being; and these commissioners are directed by the bill to apply the said four sums of two hundred and fifty thousand pounds each (making together the sum of one million) towards the reduction of the national debt, and to no other purpose.

‘ And these commissioners are also directed to apply hereafter to the same purpose all the public annuities for long terms of years, or for lives that may fall in; and likewise all dividends now payable on the principal or capital stock of such public annuities as shall at any time hereafter have been redeemed or paid off by the said commissioners.

‘ § 4. N. B. For the sake of brevity and of perspicuity, I shall hereafter call the said sum of one million annual surplus, together with its increase (by the falling in of the said annuities, and by the saving of interest upon stock redeemed) the free revenue.

‘ § 5. The

‘ § 5. The said commissioners are directed by the bill to lay out the said free revenue each year, in the purchase of such redeemable public annuities as they shall “deem it expedient” to redeem.

‘ § 6. If the said commissioners shall “deem it expedient” to purchase redeemable public annuities which shall be at or above par, the sum to be applied to such redemption is to be equally distributed on every hundred pounds of such capital stock; and public notice of the intention of the said commissioners to redeem such stock is to be given in the London Gazette some weeks before.

‘ § 7. But if the said commissioners shall “deem it expedient”, to apply the monies to the purchase of redeemable public annuities which shall be below par, then the free revenue which shall have been placed at the bank to the account of the said commissioners, between certain days mentioned in the bill, the said commissioners are positively enjoined by the bill to apply “to the purchase of such annuities, in equal portions (as nearly as may be) on every day (Saturdays and Mondays excepted) on which the same shall be transferrable between the first day of the calendar month which shall commence next after the end of such quarter, and the first day of the calendar month which shall commence next after the end of the quarter next ensuing.”

‘ § 8. The account of the stock redeemed, &c. is to be laid each year before both houses of parliament.

‘ § 9. The free revenue is never to be allowed to increase to more than to the sum of four millions in any one year, and all overplus monies (above the said four millions) are to be disposed of as parliament shall direct.

‘ § 10. The first quarterly sum of two hundred and fifty thousand pounds is to be set apart at the end of the quarter of a year which will end on the 5th day of July, in this present year, 1786.

‘ The fourth quarterly sum of two hundred and fifty thousand pounds will, therefore, be set apart on the fifth day of April in the year 1787, which said fifth day of April 1787 I shall, consequently, consider as the end of the first year of this plan.’

The first objection which earl Stanhope makes to Mr. Pitt's plan is, that the commissioners may, by means of the powers given them by this bill, make large fortunes by *gambling in the public funds*. In support of this assertion, he observes, that the commissioners will know, in their own minds, in which of the public funds they mean to lay out the free revenue; but the public will not know their intentions in that respect. Consequently the commissioners, or any one of them who is in possession of this important secret, may employ unknown and unsuspected agents to lay out, by degrees, very large sums of

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money in that stock which the commissioners mean to redeem with the free revenue. Lord Stanhope disclaims any insinuation that this was the design with which the bill was brought forwards; or that any of the respectable persons who are meant to be appointed commissioners by this bill, would apply to such a purpose the powers with which they are invested; but he contends that the bill, in its present form, is liable to this objection.

It is observable that this objection, so anxiously displayed by earl Stanhope, is actually obviated by the seventh article of Mr. Pitt's bill, as recited in the extract above quoted from his lordship's own Observations. The most favourable supposition we can form from such conduct is, that the noble author has really misunderstood the passage on which he has been commenting. His lordship seems likewise not to have reflected, that when a sum of money is laid out in the purchase of a particular stock, at the market-price, if productive of any effect, it not only raises the price of that individual stock, but occasions, in some degree, a corresponding rise in all the stocks.

If we admit as a fact, what is generally acknowledged, that the method of redeeming the public debt by buying up of stock is the most eligible expedient, certainly the faithful and judicious application of the sinking fund could not be more effectually secured than in the hands of such commissioners as are appointed by this bill; persons not only perfectly acquainted with transactions of this kind, but of the most respectable situations in life. So far, therefore, as political wisdom can impose a check on the exertion of avarice, the end, we must candidly acknowledge, appears to be answered by this bill.

We now proceed to the second objection contained in the Observations.

' § 16. This plan, says our author, does not propose any conversion of stock or any free subscriptions by individuals: therefore, it becomes necessary to consider how the free revenue can be applied in a proper way under the powers given to the commissioners by this bill.

' I will grant that they will buy up stock judiciously.

' I will suppose that the plan of the minister is, first to redeem 25 millions of the present 4 per cents, then to redeem the 17 or 18 millions of the present 5 per cents, (which cannot, by act of parliament, be redeemed, until 25 millions either of the 4 per cents, or of the 3 per cents, or of both, shall have been redeemed)—Then, I will suppose that the remaining 7 or 8 millions of present 4 per cents be redeemed next; and then, that

that the free revenue be applied to redeem the present 3 per cents.

‘ § 17. As soon as a few millions of the present 3 per cents shall have been paid off, the free revenue will have increased to four millions per annum by the falling in of annuities, and by the saving of interest upon the 50 millions of the present 4 and 5 per cents, added to the original million annual surplus. The 3 per cents will then rise considerably; so large a sum as 4 millions per annum being applied solely to the redemption of the 3 per cents. The last 3 per cents to be paid off would be redeemed at par. And I make a supposition very favourable indeed to Mr. Pitt's plan, if I suppose that the 3 per cents, under the circumstances above stated, would be redeemed, on an average, so low as 90.

‘ If the said four millions, free revenue, instead of being applied as proposed by Mr. Pitt (see § 9) were to be allowed to accumulate at compound interest; it is easy to be proved, that the 3 per cents would not be redeemed so low as 90, upon an average, or any thing like it. This I shall demonstrate hereafter. But, I am willing to give every advantage possible to Mr. Pitt's plan. Therefore in the calculations which I shall make hereafter, I shall suppose that he does redeem the 3 per cents at 90 upon an average.

‘ § 18. Now, I object to Mr. Pitt's plan upon this very ground, viz. that his plan is so contrived, that he will put the nation to a most enormous expence, in redeeming the capital of the present 3 per cents. That capital is no less a sum than one hundred and eighty-six millions. He contrives to redeem it at 90 on an average; although the market-price of the said 3 per cents is actually below 70.’

So far as we have occasion to know the proceedings in the house of commons, we have never heard that Mr. Pitt has made any public declaration relative to the order in which he means the redemption to be conducted; and we should be of opinion, that to leave this order undetermined, is the principal object of the plan now under the consideration of parliament. As it is impossible to ascertain at a distant period which stock might be purchased with the greatest advantage to the public, a discretionary power for carrying this purpose into effect, must necessarily be vested in the commissioners; for, should they be positively directed to purchase any particular stock, the consequence is obvious, that the price of that stock would thence be liable to be affected. But this disadvantage is precluded, by empowering the commissioners to apply the free revenue to the purchase of what stock they judge most expedient. Before earl Stanhope had affirmed, that the plan now under the consideration of parliament will put the nation to an enormous expence, by redeeming the capital of the present

sent 3 per cents, at so high an average as 90, he ought, in our opinion, to have proceeded upon more certain authority than that of suppositions, so arbitrarily assumed as those in the preceding extract.

Lord Stanhope next takes a view of the general principles on which the respective plans of Mr. Pitt, and of Mr. Fox, are founded. He informs us, that the plan of Mr. Fox, so far as he has been able to collect it from the speeches of that gentleman in the house of commons, is to discharge, in time of peace, the debts contracted in time of war; and when a new war arises, to suspend the payment of the debt, that the nation may enjoy the full effect of its pecuniary resources, at a period when it has the greatest occasion for every possible assistance. Mr. Pitt's plan, on the contrary, is to continue to discharge the debt without any interruption in time of war.—First, to apply only one million annual surplus for that purpose; but afterwards to apply the interest of debt which shall have been redeemed, to form a new capital; or, in other words, to pay off the debt by a million constantly applied at compound interest; to which he proposes to add annuities for long terms of years, and for lives, as fast as they shall fall in, in order to quicken the operation of the new sinking fund, which he proposes to establish. His lordship next enumerates the advantages which Mr. Pitt may urge in support of his principle; but concludes, nevertheless, with declaring, that however much he approves of the principle of Mr. Pitt's bill, he disapproves of the bill itself, which he considers as totally inconsistent with the principle on which it is supposed to be founded.

If we rightly understand earl Stanhope in the distinction which he makes between the principle of Mr. Pitt's plan and the plan itself, he means to observe, that according to the principle of Mr. Pitt's plan, the sinking fund should be inalienable in time of war, but that the plan itself affords no security for this object. What greater security can be obtained for this or any other measure of government, than a solemn act of the legislature, we must leave to earl Stanhope to determine; observing only, that in our opinion Mr. Pitt has endeavoured to fortify his bill with every sanction which can contribute to render the free revenue inalienable. If his lordship knows of any other means than the authority of parliament, the public would doubtless be much obliged for so essential a communication. But if he does not, we must acknowledge it seems very uncandid to convert a defect of the constitution, or rather of all human institutions, into an objection against Mr. Pitt's plan,

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Earl Stanhope having stated the outlines of his objections to Mr. Pitt's plan, proceeds to develop the principles of a plan formed by himself for the discharge of the national debt. These principles are included in two propositions, which his lordship's parental fondness has dignified with the title of axioms, though nothing can be more remote from that appellation, in point of truth, conciseness, or perspicuity. The perusal of his lordship's plan might afford subject for a variety of remarks; but we shall only mention one inconsistency. He had previously objected to Mr. Pitt's plan, that it would put the nation to an enormous expence, by redeeming the capital of the present 3 per cents. at so high an average as 90. But afterwards, in explaining his own plan, he forms a calculation of the 3 per cents. being at any price under 100. What, therefore, he had imputed to Mr. Pitt's plan as a defect, he is obliged to admit may happen to his own, in a more extraordinary degree; unless by some fortunate means he can keep down the price of stocks, or provide for the additional expence occasioned by their rise.

The scheme which the noble author proposes is, that new books should be opened at the bank, and that all subscribers of 100l. should be entitled to receive 4 per cent. per annum, interest. That those persons only should be permitted to subscribe, who should actually be holders of 3 per cent. stock, and who shall be willing to convert the said stock, which now bears interest at 3 per cent. into those 4 per cents, which he would distinguish by the name of *The New Four per Cents*. And every person who shall thus voluntarily surrender 400l. of the present 3 per cents (the interest of which 400l. at 3l. per annum for each 100l. is 12l. per annum), shall be entitled to receive 300l. of the new 4 per cents, the interest of which would amount to 12l. per annum. We shall lay before our readers an extract from the Observations on this subject.

‘ § 36. The first question that I shall be asked will be, what means I am to use to induce the holders of the present 3 per cents to make this conversion, by which the said holders of the present 3 per cents will be brought voluntarily to surrender, in the manner above mentioned, 400l. capital for 300l. capital; or in other words, voluntarily to surrender 100l. of present 3 per cents for 75l. of the new 4 per cents?

‘ My answer is, I shall make it their interest so to do, as I shall demonstrate by calculations hereafter.

‘ § 37. A person not well versed in calculations of this kind may naturally say, that there must be some fallacy in my calculations; inasmuch, as it cannot be for the interest, both of the stockholder and of the public, that this proposed conversion

sion should take place. That, if it be not for the interest of the public, it should not be done at all. And that if it be not for the interest of the stockholder, he (the stockholder) will not subscribe,

‘ To which I reply, that singular as it may (at first sight) seem to some people, yet, upon a very little consideration, it will appear, that both the public and the stockholder will be gainers by this proposed bargain; and for this reason, namely, because the public has it (most fortunately) in its power to give to the holder of 3 per cent, stock, that which it will not cost the public any thing to give, but which it will be very advantageous to the said stockholder to receive. And this is the hinge upon which the whole of my plan turns, I will now explain this distinctly.

‘ § 38. The nature of the agreement, which now subsists between the stockholder and the public, is this.

‘ The public has promised to pay 3 pounds per annum as interest for every 100l. capital of consolidated 3 per cents (for instance), The public has promised also never to pay off this 100l. capital at less than 100l. unless the holder of that stock, for the time being, shall be willing (at any time) to accept of less than the said 100l. But, the public has not promised to pay off the said capital upon demand. The public has not promised to pay off the said capital either on any fixed day, or within any given time. And the public has not bound itself to pay off the said consolidated 3 per cents in any given order. But, the public are at perfect liberty to give the preference, in that respect, to whichever of the holders of the said 3 per cents the public may deem it expedient to prefer.

‘ Therefore, what the public has to give to the holder of consolidated 3 per cents, and which it will cost nothing to the public so to give, is the right of priority of redemption. But this right of priority of redemption is, however, of great value to the said holder of 3 per cent. stock to receive.’

Earl Stanhope ascribes to this scheme, of priority of redemption, an extraordinary efficacy, of which, if maturely considered, there seems very little reason to expect that it would ever be productive. Instead of the priority of redemption being an attractive object to the stockholders, we may safely affirm that the stockholders in general are far from entertaining any desire that their stock should be redeemed. His lordship, however, flushed with the idea of its powerful operation, censures the conduct of Mr. Pitt, for not proposing to parliament a plan of conversion, before there was any expectation of a sinking fund; because the prospect of redemption raises the funds, and prevents an advantageous bargain with the stockholders. The noble author appears not to be aware of the consequence which would have naturally resulted from such conduct.

conduct. In proposing to parliament such a conversion, preparatory to the institution of a sinking fund, Mr. Pitt must have preposterously published to the world a design, which would have entirely frustrated every beneficial effect of the proposal. His lordship's arguments are not more satisfactory in a number of other particulars, which it would be tedious to enumerate. We have already, we fear, trespassed too much upon the patience of our readers on this subject. Before we conclude, we shall therefore only observe in general, that these Observations are far from evincing such a degree of political sagacity as ought to have accompanied an address to the public on a subject of so great national importance.

A Short Answer to Earl Stanhope's Observations on Mr. Pitt's Plan for the Reduction of the National Debt. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell.

ON examining this pamphlet, we find that several of the remarks which it contains have been anticipated in our review of the preceding article. In giving an account of it, we shall therefore confine ourselves to such parts as do not interfere with the observations already suggested on the subject. We shall first submit to our readers the author's observations on earl Stanhope's first axiom, which are as follow.

“ When a commodity, which is intended to be purchased, is cheap, it ought to be bought before it becomes dear. And if the party intending to purchase has not money sufficient to buy the commodity forthwith, he ought to bargain for it; the price ought to be fixed; and the time in which the money is to be paid ought to be correctly ascertained.”

“ This, which he calls an axiom, is deficient in that clearness and simplicity which should constitute the very essence of such propositions, and as far as it applies to the present question it rests entirely on a fallacy.

“ The price of any commodity to be delivered at a given time does not depend on the actual price which it bears when the bargain is made, but on the price which the parties bargaining suppose it will bear at the time when it is to be delivered. This consideration enters into the calculation made by the person contracting to deliver, as well as into that made by the person contracting to purchase. No advantage therefore necessarily arises to the buyer from making a time bargain at the period when the commodity is cheap. If the future value of the commodity can be known with certainty, both parties will avail themselves of that knowledge at the time of making the bargain, and no advantage will arise to either from the present value; if the future value is matter only of conjecture,
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and speculation, both parties will speculate upon it, and the speculation of the buyer may be false as well as that of the seller. The axiom is not therefore generally true. It is not true in the particular instance to which lord Stanhope applies it, because the future price of stock is matter entirely of speculation and conjecture. If the price of 3 per cents. should in the course of a few years rise considerably above its present value, the stockholder who had accepted lord Stanhope's offer, and sold at 75, would lose, and the public would make a proportionable profit. If on the other hand the price of 3 per cents. should in the same period fall considerably below its present value, the stockholder selling now at 75 would gain, and the public would lose exactly in the same proportion.

' Lord Stanhope's axiom is not therefore true in this case, unless the public had any means of speculating on the future price of stock with greater certainty than the stockholder: but the public has no such means. If therefore, on just grounds of calculation, lord Stanhope's offer to the 3 per cent. stockholders of 75 per cent. is only equal to the probable average value of that stock during the period of redemption, the public gain nothing by making the bargain now; but if it is less than such probable value, that is, if his scheme is more profitable to the public than purchasing the stock gradually at prices which it shall bear at the several times of purchase, the stockholders must necessarily lose; there is therefore no ground to suppose that the stockholder will accept it. And this last seems in fact to be the case.'

The remarks which occur in the answer, immediately after this extract, are likewise worthy of notice.

' In sect. 34, lord Stanhope accuses Mr. Pitt of having suffered the time to pass when the 3 per cents. were at 60, without ever attempting to fix their price; that is, without taking any measure which should have prevented their rising higher: his lordship complains that Mr. Pitt has raised the 3 per cents. from 60, he might have said from 55, to 70. I believe that this is the first time any minister was ever blamed for having raised the public credit of the country: Mr. Pitt, by proposing efficient taxes; by checking the practices of illicit trade, and by a general and uniform attention to the collection of our revenue; by the encouragement of our commerce, and by the establishment of strict oeconomy in all the various departments of the state, has added 15 per cent. to the value of the 3 per cent. stocks; he has consequently increased all the other property in the kingdom, if not precisely in the same proportion, certainly to a considerable amount: he has not only made the income of the country equal to its expenditure, but has also procured a surplus of a million per annum, to be employed in the reduction of the national debt. Such conduct earl Stanhope considers as a fit subject of serious accusation; he gravely com-

complains, that Mr. Pitt, by raising the stocks, has wasted 18,600,000*l.* of the public money. I rejoice that his lordship feels himself compelled to acknowledge, that the present price of the stocks is owing to those wise and vigorous measures which Mr. Pitt has adopted. I believe that the people of England will readily forgive Mr. Pitt for having brought public credit into its present situation: they will not be disposed to attend to lord Stanhope's attacks, when they know that the principal ground of his accusation is, that Mr. Pitt has raised the 3 per cents. from 60 to 70; nor will they be more disposed to listen to lord Stanhope's own plan of redemption, when they understand that his professed object is to depress the value of the public funds, or, in other words, to make in this commercial country the interest of money as high as possible.

'Let us however suppose that Mr. Pitt had last year attempted to convert the 3 per cents. into some higher stock, and that the inducement proposed had been that which is recommended by lord Stanhope—priority of redemption. We must recollect that last year our income was by no means equal to our expenditure, and that the idea of a sinking fund of a million per annum, was treated by many as chimerical: under these circumstances, is it probable that priority of redemption would have operated as an inducement to convert? Such a preference would, I believe, at any time have very little effect; but at a moment when there was no sinking fund, nor much hope of one in the minds of most men, an offer of converting, upon the condition of being first paid, would have been received with ridicule and contempt.'

The author places in a very clear and strong light the fallacy of earl Stanhope's principle, respecting the priority of redemption; and we have the pleasure to find that he coincides in opinion with the sentiments which we have expressed.

'It is asserted by his lordship, says he, that the right of priority of redemption is of great value to the stockholders. This is by no means true in general: that there are certain stockholders who may wish to be paid off, either from a want of their money, or a readiness to alienate if they can derive any present advantage, I do not deny; but I contend that the stockholders in general are not desirous of their stock being redeemed. A moment's reflection will convince us that this must necessarily be the case. The interest arising from the public stocks in most cases constitutes a considerable part of their annual income, and supplies them with the means of subsistence. The nature of the security, the ease with which the principal is invested, and the punctuality with which the interest is paid, are circumstances which render the public stocks more convenient and desirable to many persons than any other mode of lending their money.

money. Priority of redemption would by no means operate as an inducement to convert with persons of this description; nor would the threat of postponing the payment of their principal to a very distant day, if they refuse to convert, in any degree induce them to accept the proposed terms of conversion: nay, I am convinced, that even that eloquent speech, delivered in earl Stanhope's best manner, which his lordship represents himself as making to an obstinate stockholder, would not prevail upon him to change his determination. Priority of redemption, abstractedly considered, is certainly nothing for the public to give; and as far as the generality of stockholders are concerned, it is worse than nothing to receive. It appears, therefore, that this priority of redemption, which lord Stanhope is so anxious to bring into the market, does not promise to be a commodity of a very valuable nature: its noble inventor seems, indeed, deeply impressed with the idea of its merit; he regards it with a parental fondness, and attributes to it qualities which exist not but in his own imagination.

‘ Since, however, priority of redemption is the characteristic and leading principle of his plan, let us consider it in another point of view. If early redemption be really an object to the stockholders, they will only be disposed to convert, whilst they know, by the quantity of stock already converted, that their own stock, if converted, will soon come in course of payment: when therefore there is a considerable quantity of stock already converted, a person who knows that he shall soon want his money, will in that case look only to the selling of his stock, and will therefore have no inducement to convert. Thus this boasted inducement of priority of redemption cannot, from its nature, prevail to any great extent; it is weakened by every operation, and very soon becomes too languid to have any effect.

‘ I admit, that whilst the stocks are at 75, if lord Stanhope's terms of conversion were proposed, a certain quantity of stock would be subscribed: the amount of that quantity would depend upon this circumstance; whilst any stockholder thinks that his stock, if converted, will come in course of payment before the market price of the 3 per cents. rises to 75, so long the subscription will continue; not because the stockholder wants his money, or cares about the priority of redemption, on any other account, except that by converting on these conditions, he is certain of selling out at 75, and hopes to buy again into another stock under that price; but the moment a stockholder thinks that by the time the present converted stock is paid off, the 3 per cents. will be at 75, from that moment he will refuse to subscribe; or, in other words, whilst the terms of conversion are disadvantageous to the public, so long the subscriptions will continue; but the moment the terms would cease to be disadvantageous to the public, from that moment the subscription would also cease. The fact is, that the stockholders will not convert under an engagement

ment to receive their capital at a distant time, except upon terms of a most extravagant nature.

‘ To put the absurdity of this plan in a still more striking point of view, let us suppose that this mode of conversion is adopted; let us also suppose that some years hence, when the sinking fund has considerably increased, a war should break out, and continue eight years; that the stocks are 15 per cent. under the price of conversion, and that 20 millions are discharged during these eight years of war; under these circumstances, none of which are of an improbable nature, there will in that short period be a loss of three millions to the public. This may serve as a specimen of lord Stanhope's æconomical plan of redemption.’

In treating of the comparison between Mr. Pitt's plan and earl Stanhope's, the author likewise makes some just and forcible remarks. He observes, that his lordship's first calculation is made upon the hypothesis of converting the three per cents at 75, without any bonus; and by supposing that his own plan pays off at 75, and that Mr. Pitt's pays off at 90, he shews that the clear gain by his plan is 36,768,046l. His lordship's moderation, says the author, has been very great in making this hypothesis; for he might as well have supposed a case, by which he would have gained 100 millions. He observes, that earl Stanhope's plan does not in any degree tend to keep down the market-price of the three per cents.: that the circumstance of their not being in course of redemption will not have this effect; for if a holder of the three per cents. happens to want his money, he may sell his stock in the market: that the fair comparison of the two plans would be, to suppose the same price of stocks in the operation of both; and that on this hypothesis, the advantage must be in favour of Mr. Pitt's plan, as there must always be some loss attending the conversion. Earl Stanhope, he observes, seems to acknowledge, that this loss would be about two per cent. which upon 186 millions, the quantity of the present three per cents. would amount to 3,720,000l.

The author next enquires how far lord Stanhope's proposal will render the sinking fund inalienable.

‘ The principles of this plan being, says he, admitted, its effect will be liable to cease at any time when the stock which has been actually subscribed shall have been redeemed; for the legislature may at any time enact, that no more stock shall be converted. I have before proved, that it could never happen that stock would be subscribed to a large amount, except when such a subscription would be exceedingly injurious to the public. It follows, therefore, that the free revenue is, by the principles of this plan, rendered inalienable to a very small degree; or if it were to be rendered inalienable to a considerable extent, it would

would cause an enormous waste of public money. It will be shewn hereafter, that if the new stock should be above par which is probable in time of peace, this plan does not give the slightest security against the alienation of the sinking fund. The chief danger, however, of alienation is in time of war. Whenever a war should break out, the stocks would naturally fall to a very considerable degree; and supposing lord Stanhope's plan to have been previously established, the conversion would then be made at a very great loss to the public. The minister would have this substantial reason, in addition to those mentioned by his lordship, for interrupting the progress of the sinking fund, and applying the free revenue to the expences of the war. The mischiefs, therefore, which might befall this country by the alienation of the free revenue, are much more to be apprehended from the adoption of lord Stanhope's plan than of Mr. Pitt's; more especially as lord Stanhope directs that the free revenue should accumulate without limit, whereas Mr. Pitt's plan confines it to four millions per annum.

'This argument, however, proceeds on the supposition, grounded on the arguments above stated, that the whole of the 3 per cent. stock would not be immediately subscribed, nor indeed any considerable part of it, except so much as might insure the being paid on higher terms than the rate of stock at the time of subscribing.

'I will, however, for the sake of argument, suppose that the whole is immediately subscribed. There will be no difficulty in proving that in this case the sinking fund is so far from being made inalienable, that lord Stanhope has left it open, and that too immediately to the operation of the very same causes which produced the alienation of the sinking fund under the administration of sir Robert Walpole.'

The limits of a Review will not permit us to give a minute detail of all the remarks which we think worthy of attention. On this account, we shall only subjoin, for the satisfaction of our readers, those made by the author on lord Stanhope's assertion, that his plan is advantageous to the stockholder.

'With a view to establish the proposition, "that his plan is advantageous to the stockholders," he seems very anxious to refer his readers to the two tables contained in Appendix No. 21, and explained in Appendix No. 20. As those two tables are formed upon the supposition that all the 3 per cents. will be converted at 75, and as it has been proved that stock to a considerable amount will certainly not be subscribed upon those terms, all conclusions derived from such an hypothesis deserve no attention. If lord Stanhope had employed a very small part of that time, which he has wasted in these chimerical calculations, in asking persons conversant in business of this sort, whether it was probable that the proprietors of 3 per cent. stock would now enter into an agreement to have their stock redeemed at the

rate of 75 for every 100l. twenty or thirty years hence, he might have spared himself the trouble of reasoning upon such groundless assumptions. Having however made this improbable hypothesis, he still feels himself under the necessity of practising a very curious manœuvre. Whilst he is discharging the converted four per cents. he suffers his free revenue to accumulate without limit: but this mode of proceeding will not answer the purpose of the comparison which he now wants to make; nor indeed will Mr. Pitt's limit of 4 millions per annum suit his present design. In short, any free revenue above two millions per annum will overturn his whole system; therefore, says he, I will limit the free revenue to the sum of two millions per annum, when there are no converted four per cents. By this limitation in the case mentioned in Appendix No. 20, the national debt will not be discharged in less than one hundred and seventeen years. In that case, by comparing the value of 75l. added to its accumulated interest to be received at the end of twenty years, with 90l. added to its accumulated interest to be received at the end of ninety-one years, he hopes to prevail upon the stockholders to accept his terms of conversion. The rest of his comparisons are formed upon hypotheses equally unfair and improbable.'

From the parts we have exhibited of this answer, our readers will perceive, that the author has closely examined earl Stanhope's Observations, and has refuted, with much force of argument, the several propositions of the noble author. We are totally unconcerned with the interests and views of contending parties in the state; but cannot be indifferent to the fate of public measures of the greatest consequence to the nation; and when there come before us such productions as are calculated to mislead the judgment, it is our duty to bring forward those observations which tend to remove the deception:

Memoirs of the Life and Writings of Arthur Ashley Sykes, D. D.

By John Disney, D. D. F. S. A. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Johnson.

THIS writer informs us that he 'did not undertake to pay this tribute to the memory of Dr. Sykes, from that partiality to his character, which is sometimes the result of personal knowledge, or a perfect similarity of sentiment; but from an high and general regard for the great learning and zeal which appear in his defences of the religion of Christ, the rights of Protestantism, and the civil liberties of his country. Nor does he, by any means, make himself responsible for any particular opinions maintained by Dr. Sykes, either of a civil or religious nature; but, on the contrary, will be found to differ from him upon many very important subjects, both in religion and politics.'

'And

‘ And I scruple not, says Dr. Disney, with a manly liberality, to declare myself to be above the little limitations of an exact agreement in opinion as the test of my esteem and regard for any worthy character. I believe all the works of Dr. Sykes to have been designed by him to advance scriptural knowledge and the full liberty of professing our religious faith; or to serve the cause of our civil liberties.’

If, by ‘ the full liberty of professing our religious faith,’ Dr. Disney means the most perfect toleration consistent with an enlarged national establishment, he has probably not exceeded the liberality of Dr. Sykes’s sentiments. It is not easy to imagine, when we consider the integrity of his character, that he could have reconciled notions less restrained with his repeated subscription to the thirty-nine articles under any construction he himself can have allowed to this act.

Mr. Sykes is supposed to have been born in London, about the year 1684. He was instituted at St. Paul’s School in grammatical and classical learning, and finished his education at Corpus Christi, or Benet college in Cambridge. He was for some time engaged as one of the assistants at St. Paul’s school, but finding the confinement of this charge inconsistent with the prosecution of his private studies, he gave it up. He received his first ecclesiastical preferment, the vicarage of Godmersham in Kent, from Dr. Tennison, archbishop of Canterbury. After these circumstances, Dr. Disney proceeds, in his first chapter, to take notice of Mr. Sykes’s earliest publications, theological and political; the distinguished part he took in the Bangorian controversy; his next promotions in the church; his tracts in the case of Dr. Bentley, his Modest Plea for the Baptismal and Scripture Notion of the Trinity, and Vindication of Scripture Doxologies.—The second chapter gives an account of his controversy with Mr. Rogers, on Church-power; of his Letter to the Earl of Nottingham, occasioned by a motion made by the Archdeacon of London, at his Visitation for the City-clergy, to return their thanks to his lordship for his answer to Mr. Whiston, concerning the Eternity of the Son and of the Holy Ghost. Mr. Sykes’s appointment to the morning preacher’ship at King’s-street chapel; his controversy with Dr. Waterland on Subscription; Letter on the Quaker’s Bill; his preferments in the church of Salisbury, and notice of two Occasional Sermons, are the remaining subjects treated in this chapter. In the next we are made acquainted with his appointment to the assistant preacher’ship at St. James’s church; the publication of his Essay on the Truth of the Christian Religion; his taking the degree of doctor in divinity at Cambridge; his performance on the True Grounds of the

the Expectation of the Messiah; two Aflize Sermons; and his Buloium of Dr. Clarke.—The contents of the fourth chapter are, Dr. Sykes's Controversy with Dr. Waterland, in Consequence of Dr. Clarke's Exposition of the Church Catechism; his Controversy with Mr. Whiston, Mr. Chapman, and others, concerning the Eclipse mentioned by Phlegon; two Tracts relating to Dr. Rundle's being refused the Bishoprick of Gloucester; and two others, on the Reasonableness of Repealing the Corporation and Test Acts, and their Non-importance to the Church of England, and his Enquiry into the Meaning of the Demoniacs in the New Testament, and Controversy with Mr. Whiston, Mr. Twells, and others, in Consequence of it.

Dr. Sykes, following the opinion of the eminently learned Mr. Joseph Mede, shews, that "demons," signified simply the souls of departed men, who were no more mortal, being translated out of this life; and were names given, (from supposed invisible causes,) to visible effects, which appeared in various shapes, as epilepsy, madness, melancholy, and other disorders of the mind and body; and that this was equally the meaning of the Greeks and Romans. He then enquires into the meaning affixed to the word by the Jews, as found in the Old Testament, as also in Josephus, which corresponds with those of both the Greeks and Romans. He afterwards proceeds to examine the several passages in the Gospels and the Acts, where demons or demoniacs are spoken of, all of which he understands as meaning the souls ('pirits) of dead men, which were considered as the cause, the imaginary cause; and epilepsy or madness the effect proceeding from that cause. The general objections and difficulties in the way of this interpretation are very candidly produced, and arranged in five separate arguments, with their respective answers annexed.'

In the fifth chapter is mentioned Dr. Sykes's promotion to the rural deanery of St. Buriën, in Cornwall, and to a prebend of Winchester. This is followed by some account of his publication of the Principles and Connexion of Natural and Revealed Religion. His "Brief Discourses on Miracles." "Rational Communicant." Controversy with Mr. Warburton on his Account of the Conduct of the Ancient Legislators; of the double Doctrine of the Old Philosophers; of the Theocracy of the Jews; and of Sir Isaac Newton's Chronology. These, with two Tracts on the Toleration of the Papists, and Thanksgiving Sermon at Winchester, on the Suppression of Rebellion, form the contents of the sixth chapter. The seventh, eighth, ninth, and tenth, give the History of his Essay on Sacrifices, and of the share he took in the controversy which followed Dr. Middleton's Free Enquiry in-

to the Miraculous Powers.—Of his Paraphrase and Notes upon the Epistle to the Hebrews.—Of his Scripture Doctrine of the Redemption of Man, by Jesus Christ.—Of his Tract on Confirmation, and a posthumous work entitled, *An Inquiry when the Resurrection of the Body, or Flesh, was first inserted into the Public Creeds.* This last piece was published from the author's manuscript by his brother, G. Sykes, A. M.—In the next and last chapter are related some circumstances of Dr. Sykes's death, followed by a summary review of his moral and literary character.

Our readers will observe, from the epitome above, chiefly collected from the contents of the several chapters, that there are no incidents in Dr. Sykes's life calculated to surprise or amuse the imagination. His whole history is comprised, like that of most churchmen distinguished by literary attainments, in their successive ecclesiastical promotions, and the publication of their works. From the author's account of Dr. Sykes's numerous performances, the world will conceive a very advantageous opinion of his learning and abilities, and every good man will hear with pleasure, that, 'in all his various political debates and literary controversies he always conducted himself with temper and good manners towards his adversaries, inasmuch that it will be difficult to find one single instance, wherein he exceeded the bounds of decorum and civility.'

Dr. Disney, and those respectable persons who, from motives of conscience, have cheerfully resigned the emoluments of a church-establishment, many of the doctrines of which they dissent from, may be allowed to avail themselves with no ill grace of any recommendation which the name of so able a controversialist as Dr. Sykes can lend to their opinions; but we cannot help thinking, that the controversialist himself would have given the most unquestionable proof of his own perfect conviction of their truth, had they moved him to place himself in the same conscientious predicament.

These Memoirs are written in an agreeable and unaffected style, and in such a manner as shews the author to want neither discernment nor moderation. His reviews of Dr. Sykes's numerous performances are frequently entertaining, and furnish much information relative to the literary history of the time in which he wrote, on political as well as theological subjects.

MONTHLY

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

P O L I T I C A L.

Observations on the Commutation Project. By Thomas Bates Rous, Esq. With a Supplement. 8vo, 1s. Debrett.

WE think that, in the title, Mr. Rous treats a political plan of great magnitude with disrespect—which is the more unjustifiable, as his observations by no means prove that it deserves the degrading term of a *project*.

That the tax on windows, called the commutation tax, is partial and oppressive, may be allowed; we are not, however, to examine the impost, but only the necessity of a change. The two great objections of Mr. Rous are, that we introduce a luxury injurious to health; and that, in pursuit of it, we squander away a great revenue. We have had occasion to examine both positions, with some care, from actual experience, and shall shortly state the result of our enquiries. In general, it may be alledged, that tea does little harm. The strong infusions of the finer sorts are, we believe, injurious; and a very great excess of any sort, like any other excess, may weaken the constitution. The complaints, which follow tea-drinking, are more often owing to the smuggler's mixtures than to tea itself, and still more frequently to its substitution for animal food. Where tea is commonly smuggled, and the smuggled sort is drank, we find more complaints arise from it than in other parts: the complaints too are not those which may be supposed to follow tea, but which arise from substances not alimentary. Mr. Rous is right, when he observes that, in the inland counties, tea is now more generally drank; but he is wrong in supposing the revenue will suffer. A labouring man wants something more substantial; and, if any part of the revenue really suffers, it will be that arising from spirits, probably a luxury more pernicious than even tea. We know that, in the smuggling counties, it has not superseded the use of beer; and that, in these places, other cordials are uncommon. The changes, however, introduced in the inland counties, will lead us to suspect the accuracy of that calculation, which deduces the quantity of tea formerly drank, from the proportional quantities lately sold.

The second objection is, we believe, equally erroneous. He supposes the smuggler carries bills out of the kingdom. Generally, perhaps universally, he does not: so that, however great the revenue may appear which is now sent to China, that formerly sent from the kingdom probably exceeded it, because the foreign merchant received a profit. The smuggler's profit also, in part only centres in this kingdom. There is one means by which we already perceive the drain of specie from the kingdom will increase. People now use finer teas than formerly, because they are bought at nearly the same price.

Mr. Rous thinks that the revenue might have been increased by lowering the duties in part only, and following that measure with other salutary regulations. We think that the proposed plan would not have succeeded for this reason, that tea is still smuggled in small quantities. The smuggler, while the market is open for brandies, would have poured in his teas by the same conveyance, which he would have sold low, by having previously adulterated them. At the former rate it is observed, that the smuggler, considering his risks, had little profit; but Mr. Rous seems not to have examined the system attentively.

We have thus given a summary view, with remarks, on the Observations before us. We have not entered into the arguments for the change. In a national view, they are strong and weighty: it is not one of the least, that the informations, during the last war, given to the enemy, were chiefly by means of smugglers.

We shall not enlarge on the new tax on windows; it is neither a prudent nor a political one; but our arguments are not likely to convince those whose duty it is to decide on the methods of improving the revenue.

The Commutation-Act candidly considered, in its Principles and Operations: being an Answer to, and Confutation of, a Pamphlet, entitled, The Principles of the Commutation-Act established by Facts. By Francis Baring, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinsons.

This pamphlet is designed to answer that lately published by Mr. Baring, and is introduced by a dedication to the duke of Northumberland. We must not suppose it to be ironical, because the author has signed, what appears to be, his real name; but must observe, that what so much resembles irony, a plain man may readily mistake for it.

The remarks are more certainly ironical; but they relate chiefly to the tax, which has been imposed instead of the duties on tea. Mr. Thompson examines Mr. Baring's observations on this subject, with great acuteness and severity; but not always correctly, or with good humour and liberality.

As, in the former article, we deducted from the quantity annually consumed, by observing that the consumption is now more general; so our author deducts more from it, by considering the quantity of factitious teas, commonly called Smouch. The manufacture was indeed considerable, though Mr. Thompson has rated it too high. But we consider it as one of the great advantages of the commutation tax, to have crushed so pernicious an evil.

The author is too violent to be always right: he advances no new facts, nor does he state the question in a clear light. We can only hope, that if it be determined to commute the taxes on other articles, that the new impost will be more equally laid, and less oppressive in its effects.

Impress

Impress of Seamen. Considerations on its Legality, Policy, and Operation. Applicable to the Motion intended to be made in the House of Commons, on Friday, 12th May 1786, by William Pulteney, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

The impressing of seamen is so flagrant a violation of personal liberty, that nothing but the most urgent situation of public affairs can justify the recourse to such a practice. Proposals for remedying this evil have been several times submitted to the consideration of the legislature, but without the desired effect. In examining this subject, the author now before us takes a wide view of the privileges to which every member of the British dominions is entitled, not only by the political equality which they enjoy from nature; but by the positive declaration of Magna Charta. Waving, however, the arguments respecting the legality of the impress, which certainly cannot be maintained upon any principle of the British constitution, we shall present our readers with the author's remarks on some particular inconveniencies to which the practice of impressing seamen, in this country, may henceforth be liable.

Circumstances, says he, have arisen since the late war, which places the impress in a new point of view, and which require a very mature consideration. These are the alterations in the political situation of this kingdom with respect to Ireland and America; from both of which we derived a very considerable part of our naval strength. With respect to the former, this change of political circumstances must affect the impress, both in its principle and operation. The latter may in some degree, as far as example can induce, make against the principle; for surely in America an impress can never be supposed to take place; but be that as it may, it will certainly prove a material obstacle in its operations. The recognition of America, as a separate state, totally independent of this kingdom, places the natives of that country in the same situation with those of any other foreign state; and thousands of seamen may, by intercourse between America and Great Britain, be at different times in the latter during a future war. If an impress takes place, how are the Americans to be distinguished by officers upon that service? or rather, how are they to disprove the assertion of any man they are attempting to impress, who declares himself to be an American; the similarity being so great in their figure, complexion, language, manners, and habits, as to render it impossible to distinguish the one from the other?—Is it because he cannot produce a register of his baptism, that you can pronounce him an Englishman? or can you for want of that, or other sufficient evidence, compel him to serve; or pass any law, which shall place him under the necessity of producing it, any more than you would a native of France, Spain, or Holland?—Does not this circumstance present the certainty of a constant scene of confusion, an opening left for every British seaman, who is not absolutely known, or by some peculiarity

liarity evidently distinguished, to take advantage of, and thereby avoid the service ??

It is sufficient to observe with regard to this pamphlet, that the author contends, with a liberal spirit of freedom, for the abolition of a practice, not more despotic in its principle than replete with such oppression as is a disgrace to humanity. He describes, in a strong and affecting manner, the extreme hardships of which it is well known to be productive; and he likewise evinces, that the great expence attending it, ought, upon a just estimation, to diminish the opinion of its supposed utility, when compared with other methods which have been suggested of procuring seamen in time of war,

Inferior Politics. With an Appendix, containing a Plan for the Reduction of the National Debt. By Herweling Luson, of the Navy-Office. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Bladon.

Under the veil of an unassuming title, this tract contains some disquisitions of essential concern to the public. The author exposes, very clearly, the sources of that wretchedness and profligacy which so much prevail among the poor in the capital and its environs; and he points out the probable means by which those baneful effects might be obviated. He is of opinion, that if every parish were obliged to maintain the poor residing in it, at the time they become chargeable, such a regulation could not fail of being accompanied with the most salutary consequences. For, every parish being obliged to maintain its own poor, and every inhabitant being a parishioner, the first effort of parochial economy would be, to permit no beggars to inhabit it who were capable of working for their living; and it would make them regard the manners of the common people with the most vigilant attention; well knowing, that if the parents be idle, or spend in drink the produce of their labour, by which their families should be supported, the parish where they live must maintain them.

We submit to our readers the few following observations and fact, as they confirm what has often been asserted with respect to parochial embezzlement,

On a moderate calculation, it may be computed, that at least one eighth part of the immense sum, annually levied on the inhabitants of London and its environs for the maintenance of the poor, is expended in feasting the collectors and their adherents, and other misapplications and impositions to which the public is liable; for heavy and arbitrary fines are levied on those, who, disdaining to abet a species of robbery they are unable to prevent, refuse to serve with such unworthy colleagues. Parish-offices are usually performed by a junto of mercenary tradesmen and mechanics, who, not content with expending the money, with which they are entrusted, in their luxurious and extravagant entertainments, make it the principal business of those meetings to contrive unnecessary plans of

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parochial expense, of which themselves are to be the projectors, the comptrollers, the operators, and the paymasters.

To those, who think this estimate of parochial gluttony and imposition too high, the following fact, which can be established by incontestible evidence, is submitted by way of apology. The writer is credibly informed, that, in a parish not many miles from London, the inhabitants paid, in the year 1783, as a composition for repairing the highways, upwards of 120l. of which sum, 75l. were proved to have been spent in different entertainments, at the same time that some of the roads in that parish were not only impassible, but a nuisance to the inhabitants who had houses contiguous to them, and who paid their part of the composition. But then the reader is requested to remember, that these were not highways, but by-ways; and therefore it could not be supposed the surveyors would make a misapplication of the public money, by laying out any part of it in mending them.

This author's observations respecting the penal laws are not less judicious than those which relate to the treatment and maintenance of the poor. He describes, in pathetic terms, the great hardships and pernicious effects, of which the present legal system, in criminal cases, is productive; and for this defect, likewise, he proposes such salutary regulations as are highly worthy of attention. Mr. Luson's plan for the reduction of the national debt, is not, in our opinion, equally eligible with his other proposals.

An Account of the gallant Defence made at Mangalore in the East Indies; against the united Efforts of the French and the Nabob Tippu Sultan, by a Detachment of his Majesty's and the Honourable the East India Company's Troops, under the Command of the late Colonel John Campbell. By a British Officer. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Bathurst.

The defence related by this British officer was made against the united efforts of the French, and the nabob Tippu Sultan, by a detachment of his majesty's and the East India company's troops under the command of the late colonel John Campbell, major of the 42d (or Royal Highland) regiment of foot, in May, 1783. In this narrative the good conduct of colonel Campbell, with the bravery, as well as passive fortitude, of himself, the officers, and the troops, are placed by the author in such a light as does the highest honour to their zealous and noble exertions in the service of their country. The 42d regiment has long been distinguished for valour in the field; and has now, likewise, evinced its heroism in sustaining, with unremitting ardor, the distresses of a tedious defence.

The History of a Revolution at Naples. Small 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ridgeway.

The worst motives could only have induced the compilers to collect the facts here detailed, and of which the tendency is

too pointedly clear to be mistaken. But it fortunately happens, that malignity, in its eagerness to destroy, overshoots its mark; for few would even purchase success at so great an expence. The force of political engines are, however, much weakened; for the world now sees that the difference between parties consists entirely in the one being in place, and the other out. If the heads of the different leaders were sawed afunder, and the separated parts applied to the antagonist, it would be of little consequence; for, as Swift observes when he mentions the scheme, that as for the integrity or information, contained in these heads of opposite parties, to his knowledge there was little difference.

Letters on Excessive Taxation. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Fryer.

This writer, who assumes the name of Philanthropist, is, it seems, or imagines himself to be, in the possession of a secret, which, according to his sanguine expectations, would relieve the nation from all its political distresses. After many fruitless applications on this subject to persons of high rank, he now exhorts the people to appoint one gentleman out of every county to receive his proposal, and determine concerning its efficacy. We much fear that Philanthropist will long find occasion to reiterate his appeal to the public, before he can procure such a congress.

Tax on retail Shops; or, the Plunderers of India erecting the Standard of Peculation in Great Britain. 8vo. 1s. Ridgway.

Old Square Toes, as this author calls himself, affects to be a shrewd politician; but he discovers much stronger symptoms of prejudice and ill-founded conceptions, than of political knowledge or sagacity.

An Authentic Account of the Debates in the House of Commons, February 27, &c. on the proposed Plan of Fortifications. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Ridgway.

This Account has the appearance of being faithful, and may, therefore, afford satisfaction to those who are particularly interested in the debate relative to the plan of fortifications by the duke of Richmond.

The Law's Disposal of a Person's Estate who dies without Will or Testament. The Second Edition. To which is added, the Disposal of a Person's Estate who dies without Will and Testament. By Peter Lovelass. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Buckland.

This is another edition of a work, reviewed in our Number for March last, entitled, 'The Will which the Law makes.' To which is now added, Instructions relating to the disposal of an estate, either real or personal, with forms of wills, codicils, &c. The work is executed with care and accuracy; but we must still alledge, that the best instructions are insufficient, without professional knowledge, and a proper education.

An

An Enquiry into the Influence which Enclosures have had upon the Population of England. By the Rev. J. Howlett. 8vo. 1s. Richardfon.

Mr. Howlett, whose examination of the population of England has so materially elucidated the subject in this little tract, endeavours to obviate the gloomy apprehensions of those who look on enclosures as the bane of increasing numbers; and the provision for raising additional food, as the surest means for lessening the number of mouths which are to consume it. Indeed, if any great error was committed in this way, it would correct itself. Enclosing would not be encouraged if provisions were not at a high price; and the practice must soon cease when it becomes so disadvantageous, as it would be, if it tended to depopulate.

Mr. Howlett has combated Dr. Price, who has continued to reprint his opinions, though their fallacy has been often demonstrated, by actual enquiries, in those parishes where enclosing has been most general. His letters were not confined, but extended to every parish which the Journals of the House of Commons told him had applied for, and obtained bills of enclosure. His enquiries were not, however, generally answered. The answers to about ninety which he received, are thrown into the form of a table, and compared with parishes, in the same county, not recently inclosed. For obvious reasons, he has avoided taking into his calculation the large flourishing towns of Birmingham, Sheffield, Manchester, &c.

‘In this table we see that the recently enclosed parishes have vastly the advantage of those which have not been recently enclosed. The baptisms in the 89 parishes of the former description, during the five years, beginning with the year 1760, to the baptisms during the five years beginning with 1775, or 1776, are nearly as 100 to 121; whereas in the 490 of the latter, for the same periods respectively, the advance is only as 100 to 109; that is, the enclosures are increased more than $\frac{1}{5}$ th, the non-inclosures scarcely $\frac{1}{10}$ th. This is surely little less than absolute demonstration of the point in question, the influence of enclosures upon the population of this kingdom, and that, so far from having diminished, they have much increased it. It is also to be observed, that the increase from hence arising is certainly greater than here appears; because those enclosures which converted arable to pasture, must have lessened the employment of the inhabitants, and of course their number, in the several parishes in which they respectively took place, and proportionably augmented and employed those in parishes where enclosures had not taken place.’

From the militia-returns Mr. Howlett calculates, that the county of Rutland has increased 12 or 1600 in the course of ten years. We are always indebted to this author's attention and industry for valuable information, and are well pleased to think that he has not forgotten his favourite subject: we need not

not tell him that we should receive, with pleasure, the result of his continued enquiries.

P O E T R Y.

A Supplement to the Pharsalia of Lucan, translated from the Latin of Thomas May. By the Rev. Edmund Poulter, M. A. 4to. 1s. 6d. Cadell.

This performance of May's 'met with the peculiar pre-eminence of being received into, and incorporated with, the most eminent editions of the classics that have been published since its time; and particularly those of Barbou, the Elzevirs, and Oudendorp; an honour perfectly singular, there being, I think, no other instance of a work so modern being admitted to that classical distinction, which it is in full and peaceable possession of, as it seems now by common and uncommon consent.

———— adscribi quietis

Ordinibus————Hor.

'The attestations of contemporary genius have been abundant. It may be sufficient to mention the names of Heinsius and Johnson, and the complimentary address of sir Richard Fanshawe *Maio Lucanizanti*.'

Notwithstanding this encomium, and the sanction of Germanic booksellers; notwithstanding the praise bestowed by contemporary writers, we cannot but express our disapprobation of this '*common and uncommon consent*,' and enter our protest against it. The first book, which is the only one submitted to our consideration, is certainly a very puerile performance; devoid of classical beauty, and sometimes of grammatical precision. The introductory lines will serve as a short specimen, not the most unfavourable that might be selected, both of the original and version; which conveys nearly as just an idea of the spirit of the former, as Rowe's animated translation does of the *Pharsalia* of Lucan. A comparison in other respects need not be mentioned.

'The sea no longer frown'd, safe from the waves,
Safe from the wiles, the wrath of Egypt's slaves,
Lo! Cæsar on the shore indignant sat,
Breathing revenge, with anger fraught so great,
Not Pharos crush'd his vengeance would assuage;
Nor Egypt's self destroyed appease his rage.
'Twas not the doubt of war unjustly brought,
(Just was his cause of war) that rack'd his thought,
But shame and indignation urged his mind,
To know such cause of war was giv'n; to find
The soft Canopus Cæsar's wrath dar'd try;
Deserve his chastisement, his arms defy,
Whose vengeance Rome herself could ill sustain;
Nor yet opposed, but at the heavy pain
Of freedom hazarded, and Pompey slain.'

}
'Per-

'Perdiderant freta sæva minas, et ab æquore tutus,
 Tutus ab insidiis imbellibus, et sceleratâ
 Egypti rabie consedit littore Cæsar,
 Vindictam spirans, tantâque efferbuit irâ,
 Quantam non Pharii potuit restinguere regni
 Exitium. Justa est belli data causa gerendi :
 Sed pudor, et magnam premit indignatio mentem,
 Bella dari tam justa, aut mollem audere Canopum
 Cæsareas iras, infestaque tela mereri,
 Quæ vix armipotens est ausa laceßere Roma ;
 Nec damno tantas iras leviores luisset
 Quam libertatis jacturâ, et funere Magni.'

A Poetical Review of the Literary and Moral Character of the late Samuel Johnson, LL. D. With Notes. By John Courtenay, Esq.
 4to. 2s. Dilly.

Probably we expected too much ; but Mr. Courtenay's talents in serious irony and pointed allusion, which have so often 'kept the table,' and the *house* also, 'in a roar,' we supposed might have found ample subject for his pleasantry in the peculiarities of Johnson. At present, this is 'a tedious dull homily, as ever parishioners were wearied withal,' and has never cried 'your patience, good people.'

We need scarcely enlarge on the subject of the poem : the title informs the reader sufficiently in that respect. Some of the best lines are the following.

'Lost is the man, who scarce deigns Gray to praise,
 But from the grave calls Blackmore's sleeping lays ;
 A passport grants to Pomfret's dismal chimes,
 To Yalden's hymns, and Watts's holy rhimes ;
 By subtle doubts would Swift's fair fame invade,
 And round his brows the ray of glory shade ;
 With poignant taunt mild Shenstone's life arraigns,
 His taste contemns, and sweetly-flowing strains ;
 At zealous Milton aims his tory dart,
 But in his Savage finds a moral heart ;
 At great Nassau despiteful rancour flings,
 But pension'd kneels ev'n to usurping kings :
 Rich, old, and dying, bows his laurel'd head,
 And almost deigns to ask superfluous bread.'

The poetical fire, of which a little gleam enlightens the passage we transcribed, is soon extinguished, and the rest of the review, we will not call it a poem, is almost measured prose. Perhaps the following is a more impartial specimen of the general complexion of the work.

'Thus sings the muse, to Johnson's memory just,
 And scatters praise and censure o'er his dust ;
 For through each checker'd scene a contrast ran,
 Too sad a proof how great, how weak is man !
 Though o'er his passions conscience held the rein,
 He shook at dismal phantoms of the brain :

A bound-

A boundless faith that noble mind debas'd,
 By piercing wit, energetic reason grac'd :
 A generous Briton, yet he seem'd to hope
 For James's grandson, and for James's pope :
 Though proudly splenetic, yet idly vain,
 Accepted flattery, and dealt disdain.—
 E'en shades like these, to brilliancy ally'd,
 May comfort fools, and curb the sage's pride.'

Boxzy and Piozzi ; or, the British Biographers. A Town Eclogue.
By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 2s. 6d. Kearsley.

Nothing ludicrous escapes this son of wit and satire, this Momus of the lower world. The Johnson-mania is a fertile topic for his pleantry ; and the rival writers of Anecdotes rehearse their several works in humorous rhyme. The importance which the merest trifles seem to derive from their connection with Johnson, is displayed in the alternate speeches of these Arcadians, and consequently the pleantry will frequently be lost by those unacquainted with the different works of Mr. Boswell and Mrs. Piozzi. At last their dispute runs so high as to require the interposition of the umpire, sir John Hawkins, who shares in the ridicule so plentifully scattered. The speakers quarrel in language not the most delicate ; and when Peter speaks from himself, his words are not always chosen with the nicest decorum. For this fault we have frequently had occasion to reprehend him ; and are sorry that he has profited so little by our advice.

We shall select a passage from the beginning of the second part, after the umpire had rested a little from his fatigue ; his spirits, in the language of Bayes, having been ' so much exalted,' that at last he falls asleep.

' Now from his sleep, the knight, affrighted sprung,
 Whilst on his ear, the words of Johnson rung :
 For lo ! in dreams, the surly Rambler rose,
 And wildly staring, seem'd a man of woes.
 Wake Hawkins, (growl'd the doctor with a frown)
 And knock that fellow and that woman down—
 Bid them with Johnson's Life proceed no further—
 Enough already they have dealt in murder :
 Say, to their tales, that little truth belongs—
 If fame, they mean me—bid them hold their tongues.'

This is a very spirited and appropriated description : the following advice is also too good to be lost : we ' will take the ghost's word for a thousand pounds.'

' Tell Peter Pindar, should you chance to meet him,
 I like his genius—should be glad to greet him—
 Yet let him know, crown'd heads are sacred things,
 And bid him rev'rence more, the best of kings ;
 Still, on his Pegasus, continue jogging,
 And give that Boswell's back another flogging.'

Peter

Peter pays due attention to the last part of this advice; but the rest seems, from the Eclogue before us, to be dispersed in air. The following lines are severe; but we shall select them for the sake of the conclusion, which is sharply pointed and somewhat characteristic.

‘For thee, James Boswell, may the hand of Fate
Arrest thy goose-quill, and confine thy prate :
Thy egotisms, the world disgusted hears—
Then load with vanities no more our ears
Like some lone puppy yelping all night long ;
That tires the very echoes with his tongue.
Yet should it lie beyond the pow’rs of Fate,
To stop thy pen, and still thy darling prate ;
Oh ! be in solitude to live, thy luck :
A chattering magpie on the Isle of Muck.’

A Poem on the Loss of the Halfewell East-Indiaman, Captain Pierce. To which is subjoined an Elegy on the unfortunate Sufferers. By a Law Student. 4to. 1s. 6d. Whieldon.

This student of the law professes himself to be endowed with some mental qualifications, which are not in general supposed to characterise gentlemen of that profession.

‘Yet have I feelings worthy of my theme,
—Feelings—I prize beyond a poet’s fame ;
Feelings, which only nature can impart,
Beyond the reach of rhyme and skill of art.
That sweet compassion for the sufferer’s woe,
Which those alone who feel, alone can know.’

We pay all credit to this gentleman’s ‘feelings,’ but cannot speak very highly of his mode of expressing them.

The Impeachment : a Mock Heroic Poem. 4to. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

This is a pleasant mock-heroic, on the popular subject of the day, and some of the parodies from Homer are executed very happily. The objects of the satire are the coalition, and its friend Mr. Burke; and our author’s violent resentment sometimes blinds his eyes, so as to lose sight of decorum; a fault too common with political combatants.

Sir Ralph of Stannerton Green. A Poem. 4to. 2s. Evans.

The incidents in this tale are very melancholy; but, from the manner in which they are narrated, never interesting. Some passages are obscure, others vulgar, and the conclusion lame and impotent.

One morn I saw him on the green,
At the mild peep of dawning gray ;
But never more, sir Ralph was seen,
From that e’en to his dying day.’

The

The Gerusalemme Liberata of Tasso: with explanatory Notes on the Syntax in obscure Passages, and References to the Author's Imitations of the ancient Classics. To which is prefixed, a compendious Analysis of Italian Metre. By Agostino Isola. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. 6d. sewed. Robson.

This, for learners, is a very useful edition of the epic of Tasso: as the ellipses and inversions of poetical language are frequent impediments in the early period of the young Italian's studies. The editor professes also to introduce references to the author's imitations of the ancient classics; but this part of his task seems to be imperfectly executed: luckily it is not a very important one. The introductory analysis of the Italian metre is exceedingly useful. It is, on the whole, rather superficial; but seems to contain as much as is necessary to introduce the young student to more extensive systems.

Elegia scripta in Sepulchreto Rustico, Latine reddita. Cui subiunguntur alia Poemata. 4to. 2s. Lewis.

This translation of Gray's celebrated production is executed with fidelity and elegance. The other poems are written alternately in Latin and English, and are not destitute of merit.

Elegy written in a Country Church-Yard, by Mr. Gray; translated into Italian Verse, by J. Giannini, LL. D. 4to. 5s. Sold by the Translator.

The simplicity and pathos of the original are not happily preserved in this translation.

The Seasons of Life. A Poem. By the Rev. William Carwithin, A. B. 8vo. 5s. Wilkie.

This poem is not deficient in imagery, and the versification is, in general, tolerably well modulated; but the ideas are often rather fantastical than natural, and an air of juvenility prevails through the whole composition.

The Miscellaneous Poetic Attempts of G. Jones. Small 8vo. 3s. Kearsley.

The author of these Attempts, it seems, is an uneducated journeyman wool-comber. His poetry is of very unequal texture. Much of it is satirical and petulant; and other parts discover a degree of refinement above the common standard of an uneducated mechanic.

The Breeches. A Tale. 4to. 1s. 6d. Bladon.

A low tale, of a country curate and a cobbler's wife; in which the canonical trespasser is punished by the husband with the loss of his breeches.

The

The English Orator. A Didactic Poem. 4to. 2s. 6d. Dilly.

Strictures from Nature. By the Rev. Richard Pottwoole. 2d Edit. 4to. 2s. Dilly.

We gave some account in our Fifty-ninth Volume, p. 308, 390, of these performances. Some alterations for the better are made in the first; and several additional sonnets inserted in the second.

D R A M A T I C.

The Bumbrusker. A Farce. 8vo. 1s. Bell.

This farce seems founded on a real fact: its personality is more obvious than either its wit or humour. We have had occasion to remark, that scientific wit is seldom successful: it is still less so when debased by obscenity.

The Fool, a Farce, in Two Acts. As performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. By Edward Topham, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Sarahan.

This female Leon loses her judgment for a reason not well nor satisfactorily explained, and recovers it again equally unexpectedly. In short, she is a fool, to display the talents of a favourite actress, and becomes wise, to complete the denouement, in the happy style which farce requires. The incidents display broad humour, instead of wit, delicacy, or address; and this little piece may be allowed to fill up its hour on the stage, but should then be heard no more. The Prologue is, however, spirited and happy; one of the songs, sung by Mrs. Martyr, highly humorous and pleasing.

A Short Account of the new Pantomime called Omai; or, a Trip round the World; performed at the Theatre Royal in Covent Garden. 8vo. 6d. Cadell.

The poetry of this pantomime is of two kinds, serious and comical. The former is intended to describe, with *sublimity*, the manners and customs of the *Friendly Islanders*, &c. in captain Cook's voyage; and the latter to afford humorous merriment suitable to the pantomime.

N O V E L S.

Theodosius and Arabella. A Novel. In a Series of Letters. By the late Mrs. Hampden Pye. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. sewed. Lane.

Novelty must be very captivating, since it is purchased so dearly; for, with extensive modern margins, and a large letter, as in the volumes before us, it is sold at two shillings for each hour's entertainment.—We thought we had reached the bottom of the bathos; but Theodosius and Arabella were yet behind.

Arpasia; or the Wanderer. A Novel. By the Author of the *Nabob*. 3 Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d. sewed. Lane.

This is a common story, but related with some art, and in many passages highly interesting. Hurried on by the events, there

is not much time to detect the numerous improbabilities which occur; and, affected by the situations, we are sometimes led to overlook inconsistencies in the characters. But these trifles are not to be accurately dissected. Those who are pleased with this kind of entertainment, may find amusement for an idle hour; and those whose whole attentions are devoted to novels, will at least receive no harm from *Arpasia*, or the *Wanderer*.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

Essays on the Subject of Education. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Dilly.

These *Essays* were published some time since, under different titles, in two of the morning papers; but certainly their merit is not such as to have entitled them to a re-publication.

A brief Account of a Seminary of Learning established at Margate, in Kent. 12mo. 6d.

Nothing more than an advertisement of a seminary, for the reception of twelve young gentlemen, under the care of a clergyman, rector of Leigh, in Worcestershire.

The Laws concerning Horses. By William Lucas, of the Middle Temple, Gent. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Whieldon.

Though Mr. Lucas informs us that this pamphlet is designed for the use of the farmer, the carrier, and the horse-dealer, he sets out in a manner very different from what we should expect in such a production. The first article we meet with is a pompous dissertation on the antiquity of the noble art of horsemanship. Beginning with the scholiast of Euripides and Eustathius, he proceeds to Chambers's Dictionary, whence he gleans whatever materials he could find under the title *horses*. He then presents us with the commonly known laws on the subject; concluding with the horse-tax, highway, and post-horse acts, with a few cases on horse-racing.

The Trial of the Rev. James Altham. Two Parts. 8vo. 2s. 6d. each. Lister.

This Trial, held in the consistorial and episcopal court at Doctors Commons, was for adultery, &c. It appears from the evidence, that Mr. Altham was subject to some intellectual infirmity.

The Trial of John Motherbill. Folio. 2s. 6d. Kearsley.

This Trial was for a rape on the body of miss Catherine Wade. The guilt of the culprit could not be doubted; but, from a supposed defect in the evidence, he escaped the punishment due to his crime.

* * * The *Foreign Literary Intelligence* will be resumed in our next, and continued in the succeeding Numbers of the *Critical Review*.



T H E CRITICAL REVIEW.

For J U N E, 1786.

The Epistles of Lucius Annæus Seneca; with large Annotations, In Two Volumes. By Thomas Morell, D. D. 4to. 2 Vols. 1l. 10s. in Boards. Robinsons.

DR. Morell has translated the Epistles of Seneca with accuracy, conciseness, and perspicuity. Those who are acquainted with the style and manner of his author will perceive the difficulty of the task, particularly of uniting the two latter characteristics; and, at the same time reserving a smoothness and elegance, without which, at this period, the best work has little chance of being read. In general, however, the translator has sacrificed the conciseness of Seneca to perspicuity, where both were incompatible; but the translation is still far from diffuse. The fashion of the present day gives the best idea of the style of this author: it is terse, pointed, full of short sentences, and, as they have been sometimes called, strings of maxims, or rather of propositions; and, when Dr. Morell has expatiated most freely, he has continued to preserve the manner of his author. We have compared passages in different parts of the work, but have found no fitter illustration of what we have advanced than in the first Epistle. It is so short, that we may transcribe it entire.

‘ On the Value and Use of Time.

‘ This do, my Lucilius; vindicate the dignity of man: be your own master: and such hours as have hitherto been forcibly taken from you, or stolen unawares, or have slipped by inadvertently, recollect, and for the future turn to some account. You may be assured what I say is true: *part of our time we are obliged to sacrifice to office and power; friendship and common occurrences steal another part; and another slides away insensibly: but most scandalous is the loss of it when owing to negligence and dissipation: and yet small attention will evince, that great part of life is spent in doing ill, a greater in doing nothing, and too often the whole in doing little or nothing to the great purpose of being.* Where will you find a man who

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sets any value upon time? who rates a day, or seems to understand that he dies daily? For herein are we deceived; we look forwards at (to) death; whereas death, in a great measure, is already passed: all the lapsed years of life are in the tenure of death. Act, therefore, my Lucilius, as you inform me you do. Embrace every hour: the stronger hold you have on to-day, the less will be your dependence on to-morrow. Life, *however* unimproved, still glides away. There is nothing we can properly call our own, but time: all other things are foreign to us: nature hath put us in possession of this one fleeting transitory boon; which any one deprives us of at pleasure: and so great is the folly of mortals, that when by entreaty they have obtained things of the lowest value, mere trifles, at least such as are payable again, they suffer them to be set to their account; but no one thinks himself indebted, who hath borrowed time; whereas this is the only thing that the most grateful heart cannot repay.

'You will ask, perhaps, how I act myself, who am giving you this advice? I will confess, ingenuously; it is with me, as with those who are luxurious, and yet not quite negligent of their affairs. I still keep an account of my expences; I cannot say, I lose nothing; but I can tell you what I lose, and why, and in what manner. I am not ashamed to own the cause of my poverty: but it happens to me, as to many who have been reduced to indigence, not merely by their own misconduct: all men are ready to excuse and pity, but none to assist them. What then? I can by no means think him a poor man, who hath still enough, however small a portion it be, wherewith to be content. But may you, my friend, still keep your own; and seize the opportunity to use it properly. For as our ancestors wisely judged,—*Sera parsimonia in fundo est*,—It is too late to be sparing when the vessel is almost out. As not only a little but the worst of every thing generally remains at the bottom.'

We shall add the original, and the learned reader will perceive the reason of our marking some passages in Italics; that it is not to point out errors, but a little, perhaps unnecessary, enlargement.

'Temporis Estimationem & Usum Lucilio commendat; non deserrī debere, non elabi, non male poni.

'Ita fac, mi Lucili vindica te tibi, & tempus quod adhuc aut auferebatur, aut surripiebatur, aut excidebat, collige & serva. Persuade tibi sic esse, ut scribo: quædam tempora eripiuntur nobis, quædam subducuntur, quædam effluunt. Turpissima tamen est jactura, quæ per negligentiam venit: & si volueris attendere, magna vitæ pars elabitur male agentibus, maxima nihil agentibus, tota aliud agentibus. Quem mihi dabis, qui aliquod premium tempori ponat? qui diem estimet? qui intelligat se quotidie mori? In hoc enim fallimur, quod mortem prospicimus: magna pars ejus jam præterit, quidquid ætatis retro est, mors tenet.

tenet. Fac ergo, mi Lucili, quod facere te scribis, omnes horas complectere: sic fiet, ut minus ex crastino pendeas, si hodierno manum injeceris. Dum differtur vita, transcurrit. Omnia, Lucili, aliena sunt: tempus tantum nostrum est. In hujus rei unius fugacis ac lubricæ possessionem natura nos misit, ex qua expellit quicumque vult. Sed tanta stultitia mortalium est, ut quæ minima & vilissima sunt certe reparabilia, imputari sibi, cum impetravere, patiantur: nemo se judicet quidquam debere, qui tempus accepit, cum interim hoc unum est, quod ne gratus quidem potest reddere. Interrogabis fortasse, quid ego faciam, qui tibi ista præcipio? Fatebor ingenue: quod apud luxuriosum, sed diligentem, evenit, ratio mihi constat impensæ. Non possum dicere, me nihil perdere: sed quid perdam, & quare, & quemadmodum, dicam: causas paupertatis meæ redam. Sic evenit mihi, quod plerisque non suo vitio ad inopiam redactis: omnes ignoscunt, nemo succurrit. Quid ergo est? non puto pauperem cui, quantulumcumque superest, sat est. Tu tamen malo serves tua, & bono tempore uti incipias. Nam, ut visum est majoribus nostris: Sera parsimonia in fundo est. Non enim tantum minimum in imo sed pessimum remanet.

In one of the passages which we have marked, Dr. Morell seems to have recollected a beautiful commentary on that part of the Epistle, where it would be least expected, in the Colloquies of Erasmus; though it is not mentioned in the notes. As the book lies before us, we shall translate it.

‘I began lately, says Carinus, in the ‘Convivium Poeticum,’ to read Seneca’s Epistles; but I stumbled, as they say, on the threshold: the passage is in the first Epistle, “and yet small attention will evince, that a great part of life is spent in doing ill, the greatest in doing nothing, and the whole in doing something foreign to the purpose;” in this passage he seems to affect a little shrewdness, which I do not comprehend.—Leonardus. I will guess at it if you please.—Ca. With all my heart.—Le. No one is perpetually in fault; yet the greater part of life is consumed in luxury, lust, ambition, and other vices; but a much greater is spent in doing nothing. Now, to do nothing is not to live in idleness, but to be employed in trifles, and things which do not conduce to our happiness; hence the proverb, it is better to sit still than to do nothing. (Satiùs cessare, quam nihil agere.) But our whole life is spent in doing something foreign to the purpose. This phrase is applied to the person who is not attentive to the subject of his employment; so that in fact the whole life is lost: while we are free from vice we are probably doing nothing; while we avoid trifling we are doing something foreign. While we study philosophy, if we do it lazily and inattentively, we deserve

this character, either by not attending to the subject, or being drawn aside by some trifle.'

We have insisted longer on this beautiful moral lesson, because the fault is so common (particularly among literary men), so little suspected, and, when discovered, so seldom repented of or amended. With all the occasional weakness displayed in Dr. Johnson's diary, this striking feature of the human mind is always conspicuous. Let the literary man, who reflects with care and candour on his own conduct; let the veteran, who has conquered in as many fields of literature as have afforded laurels to the Rambler, if they find themselves free from the same fault, blame that respectable author, for this perpetual series of good designs, and irresolute, indecisive efforts to be completely active. If he only without fault is to cast the first stone, the culprit and the judge will be again left alone.— But, to return from the digression which justice seemed to demand, and which the stings of a conscience, perhaps wounded by the recollection of similar errors, required as an expiation.

The translator, who was himself a veteran in the service of literature, has added some useful and judicious notes. They are chiefly designed to illustrate the Epistles of Seneca, from parallel passages in the works of the ancient philosophers, and to contrast them 'with the precepts of the Gospel.' From this word, which is used in the title, we suspected that Dr. Morell gave no credit to the story of Seneca having enjoyed the honour of a correspondence with St. Paul. The fathers, particularly Jerom and St. Augustin, think the Thirteen Letters which are extant, certainly genuine; but the more sagacious critics acknowledge, that neither the style nor the substance resemble the language or sentiments of the pretended correspondents. Dr. Morell does not decide on their authenticity, but promised to translate them, though we have not met with them in these volumes. In the notes on the tenth Epistle, 'on Solitude and Prayer,' he observes, that 'it has been said of Socrates, that he was half a Christian; I think this Epistle of Seneca will carry *him* somewhat farther.'

The prevailing philosophy of Seneca was that of the Porch, which is most distinct from the tenets of Epicurus; so that of course they are more frequently the subject of the annotator's remarks. As a specimen of the notes, we shall add those on the following passage.

'There are three different opinions relating to the cause (α).
1. Our stoics, you know, say there are two things from whence all other are derived; viz. cause and matter (β): matter lies inert, and helpless, ready for all purposes; but for ever continuing

truing in the same state, if not put into motion. Cause, i. e. reason (c), gives a certain form to matter, and shapes it at pleasure: from whence proceed all the various works of nature: there must be something, therefore, from whence a thing is made, and something by which it is made: this they call cause; the other matter.

The notes on this passage are the following.

‘ (a) Between the Stoics, and Aristotle, and Plato.

‘ (b) The same, according to Laërtius, called by Plato *Θεὸς καὶ ὕλη*, which Thales calls, *mentem et aquam*. Pythagoras, *monas, unio*, (mens, five Deus, God) *Δυάς*, binio; (materia, matter) which Lipsius carries back to Homer *δ. 366*, under the allegorical characters of Proteus, and his daughter Eidothea, (al. Theonomè. Eur. al. Eurynomè, Zenod.) Cicero, Acad. Quest. 1. 6. *Naturam dividebant (Stoici) in res duas, ut altera esset efficiens, altera autem quasi huic se præbens, ex qua aliquid efficeretur, &c.* Explained by Lactantius, vii. 3. *Stoici naturam in duas dividunt partes unam quæ efficiat, alteram quæ se ad faciendum tractabilem præstat.* Ita isti uno naturæ nomine res diversissimas comprehenderunt, Deum, et mundum, artificem et opus, dicuntque alterum sine altero nihil posse, tanquam natura sit Deus mundo permissus: nam interdum sic confundunt, ut sit Deus ipsa mens mundi; et mundus sit corpus Dei. The Stoics divide nature into two parts; the maker and the thing made, i. e. God and the world; as if God was the soul of the world, and the world the body of God. It were well (says Leland, l. 13.) if the absurdity of this way of philosophising were the worst of it. But besides that it gave occasion to some of those extravagant flights of the Stoics, so unbecoming dependent creatures, as if they had a divinity and sufficiency in themselves, which placed them in several respects on an equality with God (see Ep. 53.) this notion was made use of for supporting Pagan idolatry, and was, therefore, of the most pernicious consequence to the interest of religion.

‘ But the principal error, and what among the Greek philosophers, from the time of Aristotle, became the favourite opinion, was, they all (Plato perhaps excepted) thought it impossible to admit the making any thing out of nothing, and consequently that matter was co-eternal with the eternal mind. A scheme which confounds God and the creature, and, pursued to its genuine consequence, is subversive of all religion and morality. But as a sufficient answer to these or the like absurd principles relating to the Deity, I shall refer the reader to the words of Mr. Locke, (vbl. ii. p. 249.) “ ’Tis an over-valuing ourselves to reduce all to the narrow measure of our capacities; and to conclude all things impossible to be done, whose manner of doing exceeds our comprehension: this is to make our comprehension infinite, or God finite; when what

he can do is limited to what we can conceive of it. If you do not understand the operation of your own finite mind, that thinking thing within you, deem it not strange that ye cannot comprehend the operations of that eternal infinite mind, who made and governs all things, and whom the heaven of heavens cannot contain." Acts 14. 15. 16. 24. Lips. Physiol. l. 4. ii. 2. Leland, i. 280.

'(c) In the language of the Stoics. Thus—ad Helviam, Quisquis formator universi fuit, five ille Deus est potens omnium, five incorporealis ratio, ingentium operum artifex, five divinus Spiritus per omnia maxima minima, æquali intentione diffusus, &c. c. 8.—Whoever was the maker of the universe, whether it was God omnipotent, or in corporeal reason, the artificer of great works, or the divine spirit, pervading all things, with equal efficiency, &c. A remarkable passage, compared with Genesis, i. i. 2.'

The notes on the seventieth Epistle are a valuable part of the work; as they oppose, step by step, the Stoical opinion of the lawfulness of suicide. Seneca, as the translator allows, is often inconsistent on this subject; but in no passage, so far as we can perceive, are his inconsistencies connected, even remotely, with the tenets of the Gospel.

The Life of Seneca, prefixed to the Letters, is chiefly extracted from Lipsius, and contains nothing very remarkable. Our author thinks that Seneca was never consul, and gives good reasons for his opinion. The Fasti Consulares mention him, A. U. C.—DCCCXIV.—Ulpian observes, that the compilers of the Fasti suppose Seneca and his colleague only substitutes; but if so, their language is very improper: quos *excep.* An. Seneca & Trebellius maximus, certainly implies a succession.

Then follow several extracts, first from Tacitus, relating to the death of Seneca; another from Lipsius' *Manuductio*, relating to Seneca and his writings in general; one from the Preface of Sir Roger L'Estrange to the translation of Seneca's *Morals*, together with that translator's *After-Thought*; and the last, from a Letter of lord Bolingbroke to Dr. Swift.

We need not enlarge farther on these volumes, or expatiate at length on the learning and abilities of Dr. Morell.—We shall conclude with expressing the pleasure with which we have perused this very useful view of the ancient Philosophy; and the sentiments of a sage, whom the glare of a court did not dazzle, or the society of the wicked corrupt.

A System

A System of Surgery. By Benjamin Bell, Member of the Royal Colleges of Surgeons of Ireland and Edinburgh, one of the Surgeons to the Royal Infirmary, and Fellow of the Royal Society of Edinburgh. Illustrated with Copper-plates. Vol. IV. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Robinsons.

THE successive volumes of this System seem to be executed with the same care and skill, which we have so often had occasion to praise in the works of Mr. Bell. The fourth, before us, contains an account of the Diseases of the Nose and Fauces, of the Lips, the Mouth, and the Ears. The miscellaneous chapters are on the Wry Neck, Diseases of the Nipples, on Issues, and the Inoculating for the Small Pox. These subjects chiefly introduce the minuter operations; which are often troublesome, and frequently require no less skill and address, though they are not so splendid as the more important ones, or followed with equal fame. But ‘*inest sua gratia parvis.*’

The most interesting parts of the subjects just mentioned are, the treatment of polypi in the nose, and the means of passing a ligature round their necks; but the general methods are pretty well known, and need not detain us: the more unusual ones are not intelligible without the plates. One part of this volume, however, we must examine more attentively.

The arrival of a French oculist, M. Pellier, in Scotland, his great success, and his unusual candour, have induced Mr. Bell to add an account of his methods of treatment, and of operating. Our author speaks of him with great praise; and, from this account, which we have no reason to suspect as particularly partial, M. Pellier’s judgment, activity, and address, seem to be very considerable. His attention and care are equally commendable.

M. Pellier has attained, by experience, an uncommon degree of discernment in judging of the state of a cataract previous to the operation. Our author has heard him often decide on it, and always found that his judgment was accurate. We shall subjoin some of his observations.

‘ 1. When a cataract is of a firm consistence, it is in almost every instance of a brown colour; it appears in general directly behind the iris, and not so deep as the lens is usually placed, and the pupil dilates and contracts very slowly.

‘ 2. When it is fluid, it is not commonly white, but rather of a cream colour, somewhat resembling purulent matter; and for the most part in this variety of the disease the globe of the eye appears full, and somewhat larger than usual.

‘ 3. It sometimes happens, M. Pellier observes, that along with this fluid state of a cataract, the capsule is considerably

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thickened. To this he gives the appellation of the cystic cataract.

‘ The colour of a cataract is another point of importance.

‘ 1. We have just observed, that a thin fluid cataract is for the most part of a cream colour; but in that variety of the disease which is observed in children at birth, although it is always fluid, the colour is almost always a milk white. In general, however, at other periods of life, a white cataract is of a cheefy consistence.

‘ 2. When a cataract is of a yellow colour, a small portion of the lens commonly remains hard, the rest of it being dissolved into a thin transparent fluid, forming that variety of the disease usually termed the hydatid cataract.

‘ 3. Although a black cataract is not a common occurrence, Mr. Pellier says he has met with different instances of it. The only disease for which it may be mistaken is the gutta serena; but it may be distinguished from it by attention and observation. In the gutta serena, the disease for the most part comes on suddenly, the pupil is of a deep black, it remains immovable in every degree of light, and the patient cannot distinguish colours, or the clearest light from perfect darkness; whereas, in the black cataract, the accession of blindness is commonly slow and gradual; the pupil contracts and dilates according to the degree of light to which it is exposed; the bottom of the eye is of a dark colour, but not of such a deep black as in the gutta serena; and the patient can distinguish light and vivid colours. In short, the symptoms of this variety of the disease are exactly the same with those of the common cataract; only, instead of being white, the opacity is black.

‘ With respect to the maturity or ripeness of a cataract, Mr. Pellier pays no regard either to the colour or consistence of the lens: he always considers the operation as proper, when the opacity has proceeded so far as to deprive the patient of sight, when it is not complicated with some other incurable disease, and when the habit of body is good. He always prefers the method of cure by extraction, excepting in a few cases where the pupil is extremely small, when he operates by depression.’

Mr. Bell then describes the stranger's method of operating, which we cannot abridge; but, to execute what is described, requires considerable dexterity. His treatment afterwards is sometimes peculiar, and generally decisive. In the subsequent inflammations, after local bleeding by leeches, he orders a bleeding in the foot, which he thinks more useful than in the arm. In this instance, we suspect a little partiality for the old doctrine of revulsion has misled him from the sound dictates of experience. A liniment, composed of the white of an egg and powdered alum, is applied between two folds of test old linen to the eye. Instead of alum, he sometimes uses three grains of saccharum saturni, and as much white

white vitriol, dissolved in a spoonful of rose water, and beat up with the egg. Besides the continued application, a little of it is inserted between the eye-lids, by means of a small (we suppose camel-hair) pencil: when the inflammation is very violent, he actually cuts off small portions of the tergid vessels of the tunica conjunctiva and eye-lids, with little convex scissars.

‘ When matter is evidently formed, a frequent use of warm emollient fomentations, applied particularly to the eye by means of a funnel of pasteboard, will sometimes produce a slow discharge of it at the incision in the cornea: but when this does not succeed in the space of eight and forty hours, no more time should be lost; the matter should be evacuated by an incision made in the most depending part of the abscess, when it is seated in the substance of the cornea; or by opening the lips of the incisions made for extracting the cataract, when the collection is found to be in either of the chambers of the eye. By this means the patient will be immediately relieved from pain, while at the same time he will receive the only chance of preserving the use of his eye.

‘ There is still another disagreeable occurrence to which patients are liable during the first two or three weeks after this operation, a kind of staphyloma, or herniary swelling, formed by the iris, or some other part, being forced out at the opening in the cornea, either by violent coughing, sneezing, or some other effort; and in some instances, by exposing the eye too soon, and too frequently, before the cicatrix is sufficiently firm for resisting the pressure thus produced upon it. When the swelling which thus takes place is small, it may commonly be removed by touching it frequently with a small pencil dipped in Goulard's extract of lead, concentrated by evaporation, or in any mild antimonial escharotic: an attempt, Mr. Pellier observes, that may be made with perfect safety, if care be taken to prevent the caustic from hurting the rest of the eye, by touching the diseased part only with it, and immersing the whole eye immediately in warm milk, or in some warm emollient decoction. But when the disease is farther advanced, and if it be of a firm solid nature, it answers better to remove the protruded part entirely, either with the knife or the scissars; or if it appears to be any part of the aqueous humour contained in a thin membranous production, as is sometimes the case, all that is in general found necessary is, to make an incision into it with a lancet, of a size sufficient for discharging it.’

We have made copious extracts from this part of the work, because we consider it as of great consequence, and think that M. Pellier has materially improved the treatment of the diseases of these organs. Mr. Bell differs from him in two particulars: one relates to the mode of performing a particular
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part of the operation ; the second respects the practicability of extracting the capsule of the lens. Mr. Bell thinks that, from its situation and connections, it is impracticable, at least in the way which M. Pellier suggests ; and that some preternatural membrane has been mistaken for it.

In common ophthalmia, when he divides the turgid vessels of the adnata, he carries his incision round the globe of the eye, and bathes it in warm water to encourage the bleeding. Emollients, in general, he condemns ; but, after the bleeding, advises a little of the following ointment to be introduced by a blunt probe into the eye.

‘ R. Mercur. precip. rubr.

Lapid. calaman. pp^{tt}. āā ʒifs.

Lythargyrii pp^{tt}. - ʒi.

Tutiæ pp^{tt}. - ʒfs.

Cinnab. nativ. - ʒi.

‘ F. pulv. tenuissim. et misce cum axungię porcine ʒii. et adde balsam. Peruviani gutt. xv.’

When the middle prominent part of the cornea is obfuscated by an albugo, he contrives to let in some light at the sides, by actually dividing the iris, and enlarging the pupil. His method is described at some length.

The treatment of the fistula lacrymalis is also improved, by a particular form of the tube employed to make the artificial opening, and a new method of fixing it ; by which we avoid the inconveniences of its slipping out by the sac, or into the nose.

Perhaps some parts of our author's practice may seem too bold and daring ; but we have Mr. Bell's authority for their having been frequently executed with success. To ‘ dare nobly’ is a surgeon's province ; and, in this enterprising age, great advantages have been derived from the cool intrepidity of operators. The man who first cut the bladder to extract a stone ; he who first bored the skull, or pierced the chest for concealed matter, must survey, with contempt, the timid surgeon ; and, looking on an artist like M. Pellier, cry out, in triumph, This is indeed my son !

A Narrative of the Death of Captain James Cook. To which are added some Particulars concerning his Life and Character. And Observations respecting the Introduction of the Venereal Disease into the Sandwich Islands. By David Samwell, Surgeon of the Discovery. 4to. 2s. 6d. Robinsons.

MR. Samwell's object is to prove that captain Cook did not lose his life in consequence of inattention, rashness, or an unwarrantable contempt of the spirit of the islanders ; but from

From an unfortunate concurrence of circumstances, and the mistake of the gentleman who commanded the launch. The relation of the catastrophe differs in this respect, and in some other less important circumstances, from the narrative of captain King. Mr. Samwell thinks that the jealousy of the natives was not roused by the return of the ships; that the few people seen in the harbour was owing to accident, and the taboo was a necessary ceremony, before the renewal of the commercial and friendly connections. His orthography too differs materially from that in the narrative of the voyage. On the whole, we see nothing very important in these corrections; and we suspect a little personal animosity to have been their source; for, on the most careful comparison of the circumstances, we cannot perceive the fatal influence of the mistake, made by the commander of the launch, with respect to captain Cook. We do not clearly see, on the other hand, that this great navigator's character is much elucidated, or ably defended. The misfortune of the day arose entirely from the occurrence in the bay during the captain's visit to the king, which, as no foresight could have anticipated, no prudence could have guarded against. If this accident had not happened, the visit would not have deserved the epithet of rash; for the consequences would have probably been happy.—The Life of captain Cook contains nothing particularly new or interesting.

Mr. Samwell thinks that the venereal disease was not introduced into the Sandwich Islands by our ships. They first touched at Atowai: the men who were sent ashore were known to be in perfect health, and were not afterwards on the surgeon's list; yet, in the subsequent visit to Ouwhee, they were accused of having left the disease at the first island. It is evident that this report was general, though the author could meet with no one to authenticate it, or who could prove that it was a new disease. As we shall have occasion to mention this subject in our review of Mr. Hunter's work, we shall then probably find, that the disease may be really communicated by a person who has not the symptoms of it: in other words, that the poison may lurk in such small quantities, or in such a diluted state, as to have no effect on a constitution habituated to it, but still capable of being communicated to another who has never experienced the disease. If it is a fact, that venereal complaints appeared afterwards at Atowai, it must have been derived from our ships; for, without attending to the author's insinuation, that it may have been an old complaint, we may be pretty certain, from the known disposition of sailors, that if they did not carry it there, they would have

have brought it from thence. We will allow, that communication between people who have so little knowledge of each other's language, is very uncertain, and that mistakes easily happen; yet the great probabilities, in other respects, are too powerful for the force of the following remarks, certainly the most cogent ones which the author has adduced.

‘Whether it be sufficient to support such an accusation, I will leave others to judge, after what I have related above; and proceed to point out such other circumstances as tend to prove, that the disease was not left at these islands by our ships. From every thing we could learn, it appeared, that there is but little intercourse between Atowai and the islands to windward, especially Ouwhyee, which is about fifty leagues distant: and the nearest to Atowai, which is Oahoo, is five and twenty leagues. There is generally some misunderstanding between them, and, excepting for hostile purposes, the inhabitants rarely visit each other. But were we even to allow, that there is a frequent intercourse between them, which from the distance alone is highly improbable, yet it is hardly possible that the disease should have spread so far, and so universally, as we found it at Ouwhyee, in the short space of time which intervened between our first and second visit to the Sandwich Islands. On the same supposition, it will appear very extraordinary, that we should have found it more common by far at Ouwhyee than at Atowai, the place where we are supposed to have first left it. That this was the case, however, from my situation at that time, as surgeon of the Discovery, I am able to pronounce with some certainty. The priests pretended to be expert at curing it, and seemed to have an established mode of treatment; which by no means implied, that it was a recent complaint among them, much less that it was introduced only a few months before.’

The extent of the population, and the frequency of the intercourse, will account for the difficulty which Mr. Samwell feels; and he must allow us to add, that when the priests undertook the cure, he could not know whether their ‘established methods’ were those of a few weeks, or of successive ages.

From a former enquiry, in our Fifty sixth Volume, we concluded that our visits to the South Sea islands had been the fatal cause of their acquaintance with this disease, and the arguments of this author have not altered our opinion. With a little sound philosophy, and some unprejudiced historical enquiries, we think we may yet detect its source; and we shall then find it an endemic disease of a warm climate, which acquired only its great virulence from its being brought to a less genial and less favourable situation. It may not have been

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exclusively confined to the old world; and, from the coincidence of the two sources, the obscurity of the subject, as well as the malignity of the disease, may have been much increased.

A Treatise on the Venereal Disease. By John Hunter. 4to. 1l. is.
Sold at N^o 13, Castle-street, Leicester-Square.

WHEN new opinions are generally received, and innovations on the established practice followed, the heresy obtains the title of reformation. At present, too much, in this volume, is heretical; yet we perceive traces of reformation; and even in those passages which may be stigmatized with the more obnoxious term, there is a boldness and ingenuity which deserve our praises and our thanks. It is no little merit in an author to leave the beaten path, to think for himself, and, with a firm independence, to speak his sentiments. Truth never suffers by a candid discussion, and error flourishes by frequent repetition.

The Introduction relates to the animal œconomy: the author's opinions are confessedly peculiar, so that he was right to introduce them before he had occasion to apply them in pathological discussions. He first explains the different kinds of sympathies, and then endeavours to show, that 'diseased actions are incompatible with each other.' We know it is the case in fevers, and that some fevers will suspend a gonorrhœa; but it remains still to be shewn, that chronic diseases will, from this law of nature, influence each other. A scorbutic person is, we know, subject to the lues venerea; and the true hectic is often combined with the same disease. In the instance adduced by Mr. Hunter, the infection of measles stopped the small-pox: we remember to have seen more than one similar case, when the two diseases were epidemic at the same time; yet it was then equally certain, that the small-pox, attacking a patient labouring under measles, did not check them, but the diseased actions, to use our author's words, were, in that order, entirely compatible. We then saw the measles appear on the skin, between the variolous pustules, while the small-pox was the original disease, and the pustules did not advance till the measles disappeared; they afterwards preserved the order of maturation and turning, in the same way as if the period of the measles had not existed: that time seemed entirely lost. Mr. Hunter is right in his principle; but he has made it too general.

He next compares the powers of different parts of the body, either as more near to, or remote from the heart, or as of different

different structures; and next mentions the parts more particularly susceptible of peculiar diseases. He then explains the different species of inflammation; but his opinions and language on this subject have been often published. The following account of mortification we shall select. The opinion is not very unlike the new one, that, by increasing excitement, we consume the excitability.

‘I consider inflammation as an increased action of that power which a part is naturally in possession of; this increased action in healthy inflammations at least, is probably attended with an increase of power: but in inflammations which terminate in mortification, there is no increase of power; on the contrary, there is a diminution of power, which, joined to an increased action, becomes the cause of mortification, by destroying the balance which ought to subsist between the power and action of every part.

‘It is plain from the common practice that the weakness has been attended to, but it is as plain that the increased action has been overlooked; and, therefore, the whole aim has been to increase the action, with a view to remove the weakness. The Peruvian bark, *confectio cardiaca serpentaria*, &c. have been given in as large quantities as the case appeared to require, or the constitution could bear; by which means an artificial or temporary appearance of strength has been produced, while it was only an increased action. The cordials and wine, upon the principle on which they have been given, are rationally administered; but there are strong reasons for not recommending them, arising from the general effect which all cordials have of increasing the action without giving real strength; and the powers of the body are afterwards sunk proportionally as they have been raised, by which nothing can be gained, but a great deal may be lost; for in all cases, if the powers are allowed to sink below a certain point, they are irrecoverable.

‘The local treatment has been as absurd as the constitutional; scarifications have been made down to the living parts, that stimulating and antiseptic medicines might be applied to them, as turpentine, the warmer balsams, and sometimes the essential oils; warm fomentations have been also applied as congenial to life; but warmth always increases action, and stimulants are improper, where the actions are already too violent.

‘Upon the principles here laid down, the bark is the only medicine that can be depended upon, as it increases the powers and lessens the action. Upon many occasions opium will be of singular service by lessening the action, although it does not give real strength; I have seen good effects from it both when given internally in large doses, and when applied to the part. Keeping the parts cool is proper, and all the application should be cold. The above practice is to be kept in view in mortifications that happen in the venereal disease.’

Mr.

Mr. Hunter, in the work itself, examines the poison and its effects: we cannot, for various reasons, follow his steps, but shall select occasionally his observations, either when we meet with any which are new or curious, when those occur which seem particularly useful, or sometimes when we think him mistaken.

The inflammation, in the local disease, seems, in our author's opinion, to be rather an attendant on the disease, than an essential part of it. The matter, formed either with or without inflammation, is the means by which it is received and communicated: and he thinks that there is no great difference in the acrimony of the matter, in different cases. As in the small-pox, the disease depends more on the constitution which receives it, than on the matter received; yet by habit, the body is accustomed to the effects of the poison, and it will produce the disease in a person not habituated to it, though no irritation, or very little discharge appeared in him who communicated it. This fact, which we believe to be true, we hinted at in our review of Mr. Samwell's enquiry into the origin of the venereal disease in the Sandwich Islands. To Otaheite, Mr. Hunter thinks it must have been carried by Bougainville, not by Wallis; and that the chancre and gonorrhœa arise from the same poison.

The cause of the poisonous quality is, in Mr. Hunter's opinion, a peculiar action, which produces effects till the vessels are habituated to its powers. He thinks that poison does not act by assimilation. He has indeed clearly established the power of a peculiar and specific irritation; but he has not destroyed the assimilatory power. It is very difficult to say, on any other view, why every particle of matter, secreted in consequence of a specific irritation, should be a fomes of the same disease. We can perceive no peculiarity in the inflammation; and if there were, we know not by what means it should alter the nature of the discharge, and produce a poison, not originally in the constitution. Besides, in every case of this kind, of hydrophobia and inoculated small-pox, the effects do not immediately follow the infection. Is it that the living power is not susceptible of irritation? This is sometimes, but not universally, the case; and, when it is so, the poison is soon deprived of its noxious power: it must, therefore, arise from the cause not being sufficiently active. The increased activity, in the last age would have been called exaltation; at present, it must be either putrefaction or fermentation. The choice will be soon decided.

The following passage must be given in the author's own words.

* The venereal disease becomes often the immediate cause of other disorders, by calling forth latent tendencies to action. This does not happen from its being venereal, but from its having destroyed the natural actions, so that the moment the venereal action and disposition is terminated, the other takes place; and I have seen in many cases the tendency so very strong, that it has taken place before the venereal has been entirely subdued; for, by pursuing the mercurial course, the symptoms have grown worse; but by taking up the new disposition, and rendering it less active than the venereal, the venereal has come into action anew; and these effects have taken place alternately several times. In such cases it is a lucky circumstance when the two modes of treatment can be united; but where they act in opposition, it is very unfortunate. If the venereal disease attacks the lungs, although that disposition may be corrected, consumption may ensue; and in like manner, where the bones are affected, on the nose, scrofulous swellings, or fistula lachrymalis, may be the consequence, though the disease may have been cured.

‘ Many of the diseases arising from this cause appear to be peculiar to such causes, and seem to be formed out of the constitution, the disease, and method of cure; therefore it is difficult to say of what nature such a disease may be; but it will in general have a particular tendency from the constitution; and if we are acquainted with the general tendency of a constitution, we are to suspect that as the strongest cause, and that the disease will partake more of it than of the other. In this country these complaints have most commonly a scrofulous tendency, and are often truly scrofulous, the disease partaking more of that tendency than any other.’

That the local disease is only an inflammation, and not an ulcer, was long since ascertained by our author; and he now claims the discovery. He thinks, in this species of the disease, the poison may lie six weeks without producing its effect. He mentions two instances of the gonorrhoea appearing next morning. We have met with others on which we could depend. In general, however, *cæteris paribus*, the more quickly the discharge appeared, the slighter was the disease: our author hints, that one of these early cases was very troublesome. The symptoms of distinction between the simple and virulent discharge, which Mr. Hunter mentions, are few, but they are clear and decisive.

The suppuration is supposed by our author not to remove the disease, and the matter discharged not to continue or increase it, though the parts be not cleaned. The complaint is owing to the specific irritation on the living principle, and its removal, to the cessation of its action, in consequence of habit. This probably is true, with some limitations: what follows we

we shall select without a remark; but is supported by some extraordinary facts.

‘ I carry this idea still farther, and assert that the parts become less susceptible of the venereal irritation; and that not only a gonorrhœa could not be continued by the application of either its own or fresh matter; but that a man could not get a fresh gonorrhœa, nor a chancre, if he applied fresh venereal matter to the parts when the cure is nearly completed, and continued the application ever after, or at least at such intervals as were within the effect of habit. For I can conceive that in time the parts may become so habituated to this application as to be insensible of it; for, by a pretty constant application, the parts would never be allowed to forget this irritation, or rather never become unaccustomed to it; and, therefore, this supply of fresh matter could not affect the parts so as to renew the disease till they first recovered their original and natural state, and then they would be capable of being affected again.’

Our author then describes the gonorrhœa, and the several methods of cure, with great accuracy and judgment. The following passage we select as a specimen of his manner; and we have chosen it also to show the application of his general principles.

‘ The astringent injections can only act by lessening the discharge, they can have no specific effect upon the inflammation; but as they must affect the actions of the living powers, it is possible they may alter the venereal disposition. They should only be used towards the latter end of the disease, when it has become mild, and the parts begin to itch. But this should be according to circumstances, and if the disease began mildly they may be used at the very beginning; for by gradually lessening the discharge without increasing the inflammation, we complete the cure, and prevent a continuation of the discharge, called a glee. Injections of this kind very probably stimulate in such a way as to make the vessels of the part contract, and probably hinder the act of secretion; we can hardly suppose that they act chemically by coagulating the juices. They will have an irritating quality if used strong, which in some measure destroys their astringency, or rather makes the parts act contrary to what they would do from the application of a simple astringent; so that they often increase the discharge instead of lessening it, by which means the disease also may be cured, in the same way as by irritating injections, that is by altering the disposition of the inflammation. When more mild, they often stop the discharge, without however in all cases hastening the cure; for the inflammation may still continue even longer than it otherwise would have done, if the tendency to secretion had not been stopped; for I have already observed, that a surface that discharges has assumed the complete action

of the disease, which is one step towards a cure or termination. However it sometimes happens, that an astringent injection will cure a slight irritation in a very few days. My experience has not taught me that one astringent is better than another.'

Mr. Hunter proceeds to explain the nature and treatment of the various consequences of gonorrhœa, in a clear satisfactory manner. The diseases of the urethra and bladder are explained with great accuracy, and the treatment is decisive and judicious: such various methods of relief have never hitherto been accumulated in one work. In accounting for the numerous consequences of this disease, he makes a singular observation. Nature, says he, never adapts one organ for two purposes so dexterously as to render it capable of performing either function completely. His instances are drawn from the legs of water-fowl, and other parts of nature; and, from this source, he explains the various diseases of the urethra. We may also add, because it is connected with the same subject, that he thinks the semen is furnished directly from the testes, and not previously lodged in the vesiculæ seminales. We mean not to commend indiscriminately, for we suspect that he sometimes errs; but we have seldom seen a system of practice, as a whole, more pointed, connected, and judicious. The author has examined every part of his subject with close attention, sometimes through the medium of his physiological principles, but he has not decided without an appeal to experience. We think that every practitioner will understand the diseases of these organs better from the work before us, though his peculiar object be not the specific complaint of which the author treats.

Mr. Hunter next considers the infection more generally; and, as a step from one form of the disease to another, explains the nature of chancres, bubos, &c. We should not have followed him in this part but to mention, that, in cases of chancres, treated with mercurials internally and externally, he has seen sloughs come on the throat during the course, which he seems to think may not be venereal. Perhaps every practitioner has been sometimes perplexed by similar accidents, and they are more distressing, because in their appearance they seem truly venereal. In some of the cases which are mentioned in this volume, they were not so; and we can add, from our own experience, others of the same kind. They should be carefully watched, because they may arise from some remaining infection: the best criterion to distinguish when they are not, is their spreading while the patient is under a mercurial course, and their lessening when the mercury is omitted.

In the bubo, our author allows that the matter is syphilitic, but doubts whether the bubos, formed on the introduction of other poisons, contain the specific matter capable of producing the disease. The following observations also deserves great attention.

‘ I have long suspected a mixed case, and I am now certain that such exists. I have seen cases where the venereal matter, like a cold or fever, has only irritated the glands to disease, producing in them scrofula, to which they were predisposed.

‘ In such cases the swellings commonly arise slowly, give but little pain, and seem to be rather hastened in their progress if mercury is given to destroy the venereal disposition. Some come to suppuration while under this resolving course; and others, which probably had a venereal taint at first, become so indolent, that mercury has no effect upon them, and in the end get well either of themselves, or by other means, which I imagine may have induced some to think that bubos are never venereal. Such cases require great attention to be able to determine them properly; and I believe this requires, in many cases, so nice a judgment, that we shall be often liable to mistakes.’

In a subsequent chapter, some instances of this kind are related, in which we think the different dispositions are properly distinguished; but, on this subject, we suspect there will be a little variety of opinion among practitioners.

In the beginning of the sixth part, on the general disease, which our author calls constitutional, we meet with a note, which is a good specimen of his peculiar opinions, and particular language.

‘ The term constitutional is perhaps not strictly a proper term; for by constitutional disease strictly, I would understand that in which every part of the body is acting in one way, as in fevers of all kinds, either sympathetic or original; but the venereal poison appears to be only diffused through the circulating fluids, and as it were, to force certain parts of the body to assume the venereal action, which action is perfectly local, and takes place in different parts in regular succession of susceptibilities; there are but few parts, therefore, acting at the same time; and a person may be constitutionally affected in this way, and yet almost every function going on well.’

In this part of his work, we find Mr. Hunter alledging, that no discharge from an ulcer, unless one contaminated by actual contact of the poison, can communicate the disease. The secondary ulcers produce no matter which is contagious. This opinion is, we fear, too decisive: we mention it only to guard against its being implicitly trusted; but we cannot produce our reasons in this place. When swallowed, the poison is harmless; pocula morte carent; and the blood is also free from the virulence.

'The description of the lues venerea is very accurate and clear. That part which relates to the distinction of venereal ulcers is particularly useful. Many disorders are certainly supposed venereal that are not so; for the disease so often affects the mind, that the patient misleads the practitioner. He would be an able physician who could 'minister to a mind diseased' in this way; for when once the patient thinks that his disorder originated from infection, like a spectre it haunts him with unceasing terrors, till it throws him into the hands of some plausible quack, who soon finishes his complaints by 'miser's last cure.' Mr. Hunter's chapter on those diseases which have been mistaken for venereal, is, therefore, particularly valuable; and we own it is with pleasure that we find him confirming our suspicions, that the diseases from transplanting teeth, though they may sometimes be checked by mercury, are not of this kind. In a medical view, perhaps it would be better that they were so; but the suspicion only must be a greater torture to the delicate and feeling mind of a virtuous woman, than any pain which disease could inflict.—The experiments made to ascertain the progress and effects of the venereal poison are highly curious; but, unless they were made with the consent of the person on whom they were tried, we think them unjustifiable.

The quantity of mercury to be given, the preparation and management of the remedy, are judiciously detailed. Mr. Hunter uses no uncommon preparation, and seems to relate the result of his experience with fairness and candour: we wish that he had enlarged a little more on the conveniences and inconveniences of each preparation which he has mentioned. In explaining its action he leans towards its power as a specific, and probably he would have adopted that opinion, if it had suited his system and experience. He at last seems to conclude, that it acts by producing an irritation in the constitution, which counteracts the venereal irritation, and entirely destroys it. Mercury, he seems to think, circulates in the body in a calcined, or probably a saline state; and its effects are to produce great irritability. In patients, whose constitutions are worn down by its discharges, he thinks sugar would prove an useful restorative. The various arguments adduced by our author, and by Dr. Cullen, who supports the same opinion, do not produce conviction. The instances of the restorative power are taken from the effects of vegetable farina, verging towards a saccharine state; and that this does not act as sugar only, is evident from the experiments which have been made with sugar alone as an aliment.

Of

Of the other remedies for lues venerea, Mr. Hunter speaks most favourably of the guaiacum and mezereon. The sarsaparilla, he thinks, has little power in curing the disease, and opium none.

The variety of subjects treated of in this volume, their delicate and miscellaneous nature, with the frequent novelties, which we could not compress, have occasioned us to pass very slightly over some important parts. We have aimed at giving a general view of this peculiar work, to point out its discriminating features, without veiling its faults, or exaggerating its merits. If there is somewhat to blame, there is much to praise: and the man who forsakes the road, may sometimes be perplexed by the devious windings of the forest, or be nearly lost in a treacherous bog. Even the errors of such a man are respectable, for the genius which occasionally misleads, enables him, at other times, to direct us by a nearer and a better path.

Medical Sketches: in Two Parts. By John Moore, M.D. 8vo. 6s. Cadell.

AS we have travelled through France, Italy, and Germany, with this ingenious and entertaining author, we undertook, with much pleasure, to follow him in his tour through the frequently inexplicable labyrinth of the human constitution. We there found him equally cheerful; occasionally sarcastic and severe, but always clear and intelligent. He kept too closely perhaps to the beaten path, and was unwilling to leave the high road; while we thought that he might, at least, have collected flowers, and even fruit, in a different path. But he tells us, in the beginning, that his object was to instruct a near relation in a difficult situation; and this account of his present travels, to continue the metaphor, is one of the most useful books of *post-roads* that we have seen.—We must now drop the traveller and examine the physician.

In the Introduction, which is written with his usual spirit, he examines the general effects of remedies, and the general modes of practice, in his lively desultory manner. His examples are pointed and acute; for instance,

There is a kind of quackery which some people seem to invite; they cannot be fully convinced of their physician's skill and attention without it. Proofs of this are to be met with every where; in a certain city on the continent I happened to call upon a lady, who, on account of a pain and slight swelling in her ankle, had consulted a well known physician, who, al-

though he is accused by his brethren of much charlatanical parade in his practice, commands the admiration of his patients in a more supreme degree than any doctor I was ever acquainted with. He had just left her when I entered: she told me he had ordered a poultice of bread and milk to be applied to the part, and then giving her watch to her maid, she desired her to take particular care that the poultice should be boiled exactly four minutes and a half, for such were the express orders of monsieur le docteur. On my expressing some surprise at the minuteness of these orders, she exclaimed, "Mon Dieu, quelle precision! il calcule comme un ange!"

We find more to approve in this Introduction than what is fit to select. As the doctor has, however, told his story, he shall now be allowed to give his opinion on a subject of more importance.

'It requires more natural penetration and attention than many people possess, or are willing to bestow, to determine the genuine effect of particular regimens or courses of medicine. Besides natural acuteness and sagacity, it requires the exact weighing of every concomitant and collateral circumstance which can promote, retard, or prevent the effect of the medicine at the time it is administered. It is proper to make repeated trials, and on people of various constitutions. It is absolutely requisite to have no favourable hypothesis, to be divested of all partiality for, or prejudice against, the medicine; and in short, to have no view but the discovery of truth. But when such investigations are begun by people already biased to one side or the other, or when carried on carelessly, we need not be surprised to find that the inferences are different, though all are said to be equally drawn from observation.

'But, as hasty and superficial observation often contributes to raise the reputation of very foolish prescriptions, so it sometimes tends to injure those of real utility. For the same strength of understanding which imputes salutary effects to the former because they do not always kill, will impute pernicious ones to the latter because they do not always cure.'

His physiological instructions are on Digestion, the Circulation of the Blood, Secretion, Absorption, Respiration, and the Nervous System. His account of the several opinions on these subjects, is enlivened with much pleasantry. The greatest deficiency which we have remarked, relates to animal heat. He does not give a proper view of the opinion attributed to Dr. Crawford, which the author seems to have abandoned, merely because the machinery requires a little alteration: the springs and principal parts are, we believe, to be depended on; but some of the more useful appendages ought to be changed,

A little

A little error, which Dr. Moore seems to have fallen into in his reasoning on the nervous system, arises from his not having perceived fully, the connection between the nervous power and the organization of the substance through which it is conducted. Many experiments show this connection, and many diseases are influenced in their events by it: at the same time, we must acknowledge, that several noxious powers act only on the nervous system, as containing a fluid of peculiar properties. Our author, from his having neglected this distinction, does not perceive how soft pulpy substances can retain an elastic fluid, or how a ligature could check its course.

Perhaps we may add, that Dr. Moore seems to stoop too low, by explaining, in the margin, very common words. We are averse only to the general diffusion of medical knowledge, because, as the surface is more extensive, the depth is necessarily less. Could mankind decide on these subjects with clearness and propriety, medicine should no longer be professed as a distinct science; but, when the experiment has been made, they have become too wise to be governed, and not wise enough to govern themselves. It is at least pretty certain, that the gentleman, for whom these Sketches were written, wanted no such explanations.

The diseases treated of in this volume are fevers in general, particularly the inflammatory, the remittent or mixed fever, and the nervous fever. The theories of fever are examined in a lively, popular manner: indeed, in every part of his work, the author courts popularity with an anxious attention. In explaining the causes of the great influence of Boerhaave's theory, he has forgotten one circumstance which particularly contributed to it, viz. its being so general a compilation: few could object to the whole without combating, in some measure, their former opinions.

The true inflammatory fever he allows to exist, but seems to think it rare.—The mixed fever, with the circumstances which perplex the practitioner, he has attended to with care; but does not rely on the influence of critical days*. The propriety of taking blood is examined with attention. We shall select a short specimen from this part of the volume.

The two circumstances which deserve to have the greatest weight in deciding this question, are the nature of the prevailing epidemic, if any prevails, and the constitution of the pa-

* Though we differ in opinion from the author on this subject, yet we do not blame him: every practitioner has a right to give what appears to be the result of his own observations.—We wish, however, that, in a work which will probably be in the hands of students, no remark had occurred, which might even remotely have encouraged indolence.

tient; for if the last is not exceedingly strong and plethoric indeed, and the pulse strong and full in proportion, it will be safest to omit bleeding when nervous malignant fevers are frequent in the neighbourhood. But if the strength of the patient and the symptoms of inflammation determine us to risk this evacuation, it should be in a much more moderate degree than we might have thought expedient, had no such epidemics reigned at the time.

After all the accuracy that can be displayed in pointing out the proper treatment in this important article, cases occur that puzzle physicians of the greatest natural sagacity and most improved experience—and perhaps puzzle those of this description only; for there are to whom no extension of practice can give experience, and to whose self-sufficiency, no case, however complicated with opposing symptoms, seems intricate.

Again, with respect to the bark.

It was observed above, that we might be determined in some measure by the nature of the reigning epidemic, with respect to bleeding in the beginning of this fever.—The general course which the disease holds at any particular season, may also determine us with regard to the period at which we should begin to give the bark. For if, when this fever prevails, we observe, that while the symptoms are no way alarming, and while we use the common means of promoting more distinct remissions, the patients are apt to be suddenly seized with excessive weakness, and increased confusion in the head; it will then be proper in future cases, to give the bark earlier, that we may obviate the dangerous debility we have reason to dread; for having observed this in several cases, we have cause to believe that such is the general bent of the fever. Indeed it commonly happens that epidemic diseases are treated more successfully after having continued for some time, than when they first appear, on this account, because we become acquainted with the various changes of the diseases, and by that means are sometimes enabled to prevent the effects of the most troublesome symptoms.

We find no great peculiarity in our author's account of the effects of remedies, except that he finds the columbo root a gentle laxative.

The nervous fever is described in pointed and appropriated language: we have not seen a more faithful picture; and the disputes, on the putrescence of the animal fluids, are detailed with equal spirit and precision. Much attention is also paid, as a matter of the greatest consequence, to the distinguishing symptoms. Bleeding, our author thinks, is very seldom, if ever, admissible; and he thinks very justly. We may, however, hint, that inflammations of the lungs sometimes occur with putrid fevers, and then do not bear bleeding. Such epidemics

epidemics are uncommon; but they have existed; they have extended widely, and they may again occur. We sincerely wish that those who have been conversant with them would inform the world of their symptoms and methods of treatment.

His practice is, on the whole, judicious. We know not why he should fear censure from the quantity of wine which he mentions, for we are certain that his directions are highly proper and salutary. The bark may have succeeded in the manner described, in his hands: we can only say, that it has failed in our's.

Dr. Moore observes that blisters are seldom of service in nervous fever; we believe so, except when topical congestions have occurred. This is not uncommon in the end of the disease, and sometimes in its progress.

We must now leave our entertaining author. We have given the more striking features of his work, and we have done it in a manner which we hope will lead our readers to examine it more particularly:—in many respects these Sketches deserve it.

The Persian Heroine, a Tragedy. By Richard Paul Jodrell, Esq.
F. R. S. 4to. 6s. Faulder:

THIS tragedy, though announced as a second edition, never made its public appearance till now. It was first printed in the octavo form, that it might be submitted with more facility to the reader than a manuscript allows. The reader or readers here alluded to, we suppose, are the managers of Drury-lane and Covent-garden theatres, who refused to accept it in no very civil manner. Mr. Jodrell inveighs against them with great severity, wishes that the legislature would interfere on such occasions, and that a board of able critics was appointed to sit in judgment on the performances of theatrical candidates. 'The public reader, he adds, must now decide on the merits of this tragedy; and to that tribunal, having first guarded the property by law, I appeal with confidence *.'

Capricious and insolent as our dramatic managers may sometimes be, yet are they frequently censured very unjustly. Are not authors, proverbially, too partial to their own productions; and can it be expected that they will pay implicit credit to their judgment, who are parties concerned? Mr. Jodrell appears very conversant with the writers of antiquity; but is his performance, therefore, calculated for representation? He seems well acquainted with the manners of ancient Persia;

* It is entered in Stationers-Hall.

and to explain the allusions to them, notes are added nearly equal to the play itself. But if these notes are necessary to the reader, surely the exhibition, without this clue, must have appeared very strange to the million; who, though it sometimes indeed happens to be the case, could not reasonably be expected to applaud what they did not understand. Unfortunately, notwithstanding this attention to the ancient manners of Persia, some passages are totally dissimilar to them, as will appear from the following analysis.

The scene is Susa: the time, Xerxes' return from his Grecian expedition. The play opens with Masistes and Narbal, two Persian chiefs, moralizing on that subject. Masistes calls Narbal his 'guardian angel,' for preserving his life from an assassin; and, to reward his valour, offers him his daughter; to whom, he says,

'Helen compar'd,
Would like an Æthiop seem: her opening bloom
Unfolds its vernal rose, and feasts the eye,
The ravish'd eye, with extacy of charms.'

Narbal tells him,

'His honest heart has not its casket void,'—

and goes out, leaving Masistes not well pleased with the refusal; the cause of which, Narbal assigns in a following scene, though he certainly, with as great propriety, might have done it in this. Demaratus, the exiled king of Sparta, enters, and aggravates the grief of Masistes, by informing him that Xerxes had chosen Arteynte, his daughter, 'to grace his royal bed;' but that she, and we think very properly, rejected the offer,

'Because the royal Xerxes is engag'd
To queen Amestris, and rejects the custom
Of eastern climes, which suffers kings to rove,
Like Nature's commoners, from flow'r to flow'r,
And clasps unnumber'd partners of their bed.'

This we allow to be after the manner of the Medes and Persians; but not so the next speech of Masistes, in which he inveighs against polygamy, and observes, 'how nicely balanc'd hangs the scale of the two sexes:' which is asserted not to be the case in the warmer regions of Asia; and if it was, to impugn the custom appears as unnatural in a Persian satrap, as for a Christian divine to plead in favour of it. Arteynte and her confidante next make their appearance.—After the usual question of, why she is so sorrowful? and the usual answer, that she envies the village-maid her humble sphere; and that pomp cannot contribute to happiness, she informs Melissa,

'When Persia's glowing youth display'd their Teats
Of mimic war, from Susa's royal tow'r

I saw

I saw the pageant scene with ardent eye,
 And trac'd the heroes panting for renown.
 One godlike prince in majesty of form
 Outshone the rival peers: I mark'd him well,
 And felt a lambent flame; now hope, now fear,
 Alternate reign'd; on him alone I gaz'd:
 But who can paint my agony of soul,
 When from his steed, by an ill-fated blow,
 My champion fell? soft pity now enthral'd
 My captive breast: I wept and sigh'd, "Poor youth,
 How hard thy lot!" Strait to the female tent
 They brought the lovely stripling, where I bath'd
 With tears the gushing wound, and with these locks
 I wiped the tender body. Soon as life
 Reviv'd, he thank'd me for the gentle boon,
 And breath'd these accents in my trembling ear:
 "If e'er thy warrior should return from Grace,
 Where glory calls, I will remember thee,
 And throw, sweet nymph, my laurels at thy feet.
 But, if beneath the hostile spear I fall,
 Behold this pledge of my immortal love!"
 He then bestow'd this picture, which I've worn
 Here on my bosom since that omen'd day;
 And ever, my Melissa, will I wear it.'

That a Persian lady, though by her own account, as the
 custom really was,

— 'Eastern virgins are immur'd

Before the nuptial rite;—

that he should stand on a tower to see an army reviewed; that
 a warrior being thrown from a horse should be carried to the
female tent, and she go thither to dress his wounds, militates
 most violently against the costume: that both should fall
 violently in love, and neither of them enquire the other's
 name, is equally contrary to reason. To Melissa's assuring
 her that the hero 'will soon bless her longing sight,' she an-
 swers.

'Meanwhile but brief delay impending fate
 Permits, for the tremendous Xerxes comes,
 And leads another bridegroom to my arms.'

This would lead us to expect Xerxes introducing a rival lover;
 but Otanes enters, (another breach of the costume,) to report
 'his monarch's dread behest.'

'My royal master bade me call
 Arteynte to his tent; some great event
 Demands thy presence; you will learn from him.'

Poor Melissa wonders what Xerxes can want of her at so 'un-
 timely an hour,' and Arteynte expresses her dread of Amestris'
 jealousy.

Xerxes

Xerxes and Arteynte open the second act. He first endeavours to wheedle her into compliance, but finding that answer no purpose, he endeavours to bluster her into it.

‘Am I thus brav’d by a fantastick girl?
Is the tremendous Xerxes so debas’d,
That a rude damsel shall resist his sway?
Imperious maid! by the dread God on high,
Whose great vice-gerent here on earth I reign,
Thy sex alone protects thee from mine ire,
And charms the vengeance of a king incens’d.
But I’ll be brief; this day thou wed’st or diest.’

Arteynte defies and leaves him. Xerxes determines that

‘her stubborn soul
Shall yield; its royal mould is fit for Xerxes:
Arteynte shall be mine: I’ll clasp her charms.’

At the entrance of Amestris he seems to make a momentary transfer of his tender affections.

‘My loyal queen, most welcome is thy visit
To soothe my tortur’d mind with dalliance sweet.’

The queen replies that she has brought him a very beautiful mantle, worked by herself, and desires him to

‘Receive this essay of the loom, and *live*.’

We are told, in the notes, that to make such kind of presents was customary among the Oriental nations, and that the phrase we have marked in Italics was the usual manner in which they addressed their kings: it is, however, but half of it. To have adopted their mode of expression, it should be ‘and live for ever.’ The compliment undoubtedly sounds rather hyperbolical to an English ear; but as it stands now, it is no compliment at all. To bid a person to *live*, seems to intimate that he either had been grievously ill, or under sentence of death. The king, however, considers it as a compliment, and is so delighted with the present, that he swears to grant whatever request she should make on ‘Tycta’s annual feast,’ which was now approaching: and then informs her that

‘The fierce Arteynte
Disdains to yield her treasures to my wish.

‘*Amestris*. What! can a virgin, like the morning dew
Melting on vernal rose, refuse thy arms?
Can she, as tim’rous as the new-born fawn,
Resist the frown of thy tremendous brow?
No; ’tis her mother, ’tis Pallene, scorns
Thy royal edict, and inspires her child.

‘*Xerxes*. By heav’n, Amestris, thou hast rous’d my soul,
And harrow’d deep suspicion.’—

But the poor king never suspects that he has entrusted his secret with the most improper person he could have thought of for a confidant.—Masistes and Pallene now enter; and we find, from the latter, that during the husband's absence, Xerxes had paid his addresses to the mother as well as daughter; who enters and tells them 'she must die to day.' She assures them that

' no wanton whim,
No wayward fancy, nor capricious spleen,
Opposes majesty: 'tis love, 'tis love,
Firm, fix'd, devoted love, resolv'd on death,
Rather than violate its *sacred cell*.
Oh! spare my blushes; and retire, Pallene,
To thy sequester'd closet; there I'll tell
To thee, my mother, all my piteous tale.'

This is undoubtedly very pathetic: Pallene conducts the 'fond trembler' off the stage; and Masistes 'wonders at love's magic sway.' Narbal enters to him, relates his former interview with a 'charming virgin.'

' But where she dwells in Susa, or her lineage,
I ne'er discover'd.'—

That he did not make so necessary an enquiry is more extraordinary than that he should 'rove in vain through Susa' for that purpose. Indeed he seems to be aware of losing his labour, as he immediately adds,

' Thou know'st how *cloister'd* nymphs
Here live secur'd from ev'ry gazing eye.'

But Masistes assures him he *will* find her at 'Tyta's feast.' What are we to gather from these contradictory accounts relative to the confinement of the Persian ladies before marriage?

We have next a chorus of Magi and Virgins, at the solemnization of the feast. Xerxes appears in the highest good humour, and orders all his subjects to be merry.

' Thro' all the ample round and wide domain
Of my extended empire, from Susa
To Ecbatana and Persepolis,
And thence to Babylon, be joy proclaim'd!'

Amestris puts a sudden stop to these proceedings by demanding

' The royal present of Arteynte's life.'

and Xerxes bids them

' Dissolve the banquet, and let all depart.'

In the next act he makes ample amends for saying so little at the end of the last. He assures Amestris that

' The chaste Arteynte ne'er seduc'd his love.'

She

She replies that 'his eyes have been often guilty;' and a scene of mutual upbraidings ensues. She leaves him, and Demaratus enters. But we are told, in a note, that 'no one could enter the king's tent unless particularly summoned.' Amestris, in the first act, apologizes for it; but the Spartan, and others, as we shall see hereafter, make not the least excuse for breaking through this well-known institution. Xerxes is advised to consult the Magi, as best skill'd in 'unravelling law:' he likes the advice, and orders them to be brought to his *closet*.

'Where my *imperial ear* shall grace their council.'

This is a long dialogue, but the following lines will probably afford a sufficient specimen of it.

Demaratus. O thou deluded monarch,
Beware of flatt'ring cozenage, which fancy
May strew o'er conscience! Is not all mankind
Bound by one common chain to rev'rence oaths,
Those awful, sacred, and rever'd appeals
To the high thund'ring Jove, which Heav'n has heard,
And the recording angel seal'd with fate?

Xerxes. Yes, Demaratus, I confess thou plead'st
Too eloquent for Xerxes to deny.'

The eloquence of Demaratus, and the idea of a 'recording angel,' (how he came by it indeed is another matter,) are doubtless truly sublime!—We have next a dialogue between Masistes, Pallene, and Narbal, in which the most remarkable passage is Arteynte's making a vow to beat the heart of her lover's spirit.

'O wheresoe'er thou art, my absent lover,
Whether thou tread'st on earth thy devious way
A solitary wanderer, or above
Hover'st unseen with the celestial choirs,
Know, I am still Arteynte, and *this heart*
Shall beat, sweet spirit, thine, tho' tyrant force—
Away! for madness lurks in that dire image.'

And well it might; for surely sober sense could never form such an idea. She goes out. Narbal enters, and tells Masistes he 'had deceiv'd his soul; and asks him,

'Where is thy boasted promise, that to-day
I should discover that resplendent star
Of my celestial fair?'

Masistes, instead of apologizing for his rash promise, or telling him that it was not likely to meet a 'cloyster'd virgin' at so public an assembly, asks him

'Is this, young warrior, thy undaunted spirit?
Hast thou no symbol, by whose friendly light
We may explore this mistress of thy soul?'

This

This leads to the discovery. Narbal shews his mistress's portrait 'imprison'd in a casket;' and tells Masistes that 'no mortal eyes, except his own, had ever *prophand* it.' Pallene likewise produces his, communicated to her by Arteynte; Narbal is quite overjoyed at having thus luckily found out his mistress, and equally distressed at hearing she had been given as a 'present' to Amestris, and was gone to that lady. Xerxes next appears with Demaratus and the Magi, in close consultation. They inform him that a voluntary victim only can redeem Arteynte. Amestris enters and insults him; and he confesses himself 'abash'd by woman.' Arteynte comes in and defies him. Amestris expresses some intentions of stabbing her, but on second thoughts resolves to 'probe her boasted valour on the tremendous pile;' and goes out in a rage; Narbal enters. We are to observe, not one of them had been *summon'd* by the 'tremendous' Xerxes; who now indeed assumes some spirit, bids him 'avaunt;' suspects him for a rival, and orders the guards to seize him. Arteynte invokes the 'savage satellites,' says she will accompany him: Xerxes forbids: she, however, quits him with this threat, 'I'll go, I'll die.' Demaratus, left alone with the king, intreats him to release Narbal.

'I can't (says he) refrain

This wat'ry rheum from these self-moving orbs.'

Xerxes answers,

'Such milky tenderness disgraces kings:
My heart is steel'd to spectacles of horror,
And knows no trickling drops of female show'rs,
For I ne'er wept, save on Abydos' summit.'

To show no mercy because he never wept but once in his life, may be a monarchical reason in the true Oriental style, but it is a very bad one; and so Demaratus thinks, for in the next scene he promises Masistes to release Narbal from prison. That hero now appears in durance; Arteynte enters to him, having, as she says, 'open'd the gates with a golden key.' The venality of the Persian guards in this place, and their negligence in others, is truly remarkable. This is a very pathetic scene!

'Shall you (says Narbal) then die, while I'm imprison'd?

Off,

Ye ignominious fetters, or I'll break
Your adamantine links! Ye folding portals
Expand your avenues, or bow your pillars!

These chains are unlocked, and the portals opened by Demaratus and Masistes. Arteynte, contrary to Narbal's request, and we think contrary to common sense, goes to Amestris, to
'await

'await her rage,' not, however, before Demaratus had assured her they

'would try some *stratagem of bliss*.'

This stratagem appears to be the killing of Xerxes; in our opinion no very creditable undertaking for Demaratus, who had been hospitably entertained by him.

Arteynte opens the fifth act with telling Melissa that 'her *purling* tears flow idly.' Amestris comes in and threatens to burn her. Narbal enters—O ye Persian satellites! and offers to be burnt for her. He 'appeals to law:' Amestris 'denies the *arbitrary* claim.' Narbal tells her Xerxes is coming.

'Behold the tyrant! he shall judge the contest.'

The tyrant wonders at the 'frantic youth's being elop'd from prison;' and enquires who 'set him free.' Narbal replies 'love gave me liberty.' Arteynte assures him that he 'talks at random.' Indeed had he spoke truth he must have accused her father and Demaratus; but poor Xerxes seems perfectly satisfied with the account; and when, immediately after, Narbal calls him a monster and a devil, admires the divinity of his eloquence.

'He pleads his cause with energy divine.'

He tells Amestris that 'Narbal is her slave, and Arteynte his;' enquires for his satraps, and orders them to drag her to his tent. Amestris and Narbal are now left together, and she takes a sudden liking to him, tells him

— 'he has charms to captivate the heart

Of woman, and to lure her roving eye.'

Narbal wonders 'what she can mean?' She calls him a 'dull youth,' then plainly declares that he must kill Xerxes: gives him a scimeter for that purpose; and promises that he shall partake with her the throne of Persia. Scene changes to the royal pavilion; Xerxes tells Arteynte,

'I will enjoy thee by commanding force.

Where is thy Narbal to protect thee now?

'*Arteynte*. Sent, by thy murd'ring hand, to yonder sphere,

Where thou, nor any tyrant e'er can enter:

Gone to seraphic courts of starry heaven,

Where the immortal spirits, like himself,

For ever live, quaffing Nepenthe's stream,

Ambrosial nectar, and eternal bliss.

'*Xerxes*. There let him revel, while on earth I reign,

And on the charms of proud Arteynte feast.'

This banquet, however, we find was not destined for Xerxes, who is rather surprised, as Narbal enters, at his second escape from

from prison. Well indeed he might, for never were guards so inattentive to their duty as these Persian satellites. Narbal, to the great admiration of Arteynte, throws away the scimeter, and 'challenges him arm to arm, and sword to sword.' But is not a scimeter the Persian sword? and to what purpose was it given him if he had one before? Xerxes calls him 'a mad-man,' and talks of 'frowning his soul to hell.' The other replies, that 'his *lackeying* herd of slaves were absent;' and then oddly enough asks, 'where his satraps and immortal guards were?' Xerxes rejoins 'that kings are gods on earth.' Narbal says 'tis an impious boast,' fights with, and kills him. Amestris enters, applauds his courage, and demands her former 'prisoner.' Narbal observes, the 'death of Xerxes absolv'd his oath.' Amestris calls herself a fool, and tells him, 'If Arteynte lives,' he is her 'prize, and must die.' This is denied; she offers

'A monarch's sceptre and her royal hand,'

but it does not succeed; and she falls into a great passion at being 'duped:' attempts to stab Narbal; is killed by Arteynte, who exclaims

'Xerxes *wasts*

This fatal scimeter prepar'd for him.'

Never surely was a revolution, that in the Rehearsal excepted, brought about in an easier manner! Never were a king and queen, in their own capital, in a time of peace, in the midst of guards, sent out of the world with less disturbance, or so little ceremony!

We respect this gentleman's learning; but something more is requisite to acquire success in theatrical composition.

A Dissertation on the Sexes of Plants. Translated from the Latin of Linnæus. By James Edward Smith, F. R. S. 8vo. 2s. Nicol.

WE are much obliged to Mr. Smith for this translation of a work, whose title only, except by accident, had reached us: most of the 'copies now in England having come over with the Linnæan library,' of which we suppose this gentleman to have been the purchaser. The facts are frequently new to us, though published in 1760, and though the theory has often, since that period, been the subject of discussion. Indeed we think, with the translator, that other countries have been also deprived of it, and that even Spatanzani had not seen it. The objections of the Italian naturalist were noticed, and, in some measure, answered, in our Fifty-eighth Vol. LXI. *June*, 1786.

F f

Volume,

Volume, page 404. We need not now resume the subject at any great length, since the prejudices of philosophers begin to disappear, and the reputation of the Swede is almost as unfulfilled as it is extensive.

We have more than once observed, and shall have occasion to repeat it, that Spalanzani indulges a little prejudice against Linnæus, which leads him frequently to attack his admirers. At this moment, he seems to be indulging his spleen, by his remarks on our countryman, Mr. Ellis, in the work which he is preparing on zoophytes. Mr. Ellis is indeed remarkable for a considerable, perhaps too attentive an attachment to the northern naturalist. For the conduct of Spalanzani we cannot assign any satisfactory reason: Mr. Smith attributes it to some little professorial jealousy between him and his colleague Scopoli, whom, though he affects to compliment, he must unavoidably despise, if he despises Linnæus; Scopoli having chiefly distinguished himself as a methodical and descriptive author, and being the warm friend and constant correspondent of the Swedish naturalist.

We shall relate one experiment, because made on the plant with which Spalanzani was unsuccessful: the peculiarity, which we have distinguished by Italics, is so remarkable, as to evince the attention of the author, and to add great force to his opinion.

‘ In the month of April I sowed the seeds of hemp (*cannabis*) in two different pots. The young plants came up so plentifully, that each pot contained thirty or forty. I placed each by the light of a window, but in different and remote apartments. The hemp grew extremely well in both pots. In one of them I permitted the male and female plants to remain together, to flower and bear fruit, which ripened in July, and being macerated in water, and committed to the earth, sprung up in twelve days. From the other, however, I removed all the male plants, as soon as they were old enough for me to distinguish them from the females. The remaining females grew very well, and presented their long pistilla in great abundance, these flowers continuing a very long time, as if in expectation of their mates; while the plants in the other pot had already ripened their fruit, their pistilla having, quite in a different manner, faded as soon as the males had discharged all their pollen. It was certainly a beautiful and truly admirable spectacle, to see the unimpregnated females preserve their pistilla so long green and flourishing, not permitting them to begin to fade, till they had been for a very considerable time exposed, in vain, to the access of the male pollen. Afterwards, when these virgin plants began to decay through age, I examined all their calyces in the presence of several botanists, and found them large, and
flou-

flourishing, although every one of the seed-buds was brown, compressed, membranaceous, and dry, not exhibiting any appearance of cotyledons or pulp. Hence I am perfectly convinced, that the circumstance which authors have recorded, of the female hemp having produced seeds, although deprived of the male, could only have happened by means of pollen, brought by the wind from some distant place. No experiment can be more easily performed than the above; none more satisfactory in demonstrating the generation of plants.'

At the conclusion, Linnæus mentions the hybrid plants, and suggests a doubt, whether the numerous species of many vegetables may not be hybrids from one mother. He observes, that the mother supplies the more internal and essential parts, as the flower, and parts of fructification; while, from the other parent, the external covering, as the leaves, &c. are derived. This holds equally in animals. We think this opinion may be supported by many observations: it is certainly true, that hybrids, with these constant discriminating marks, frequently occur; and that, when the parent plants are not very dissimilar, they produce fertile seeds. So that if every species does not arise from this promiscuous fructification, it is highly probable that the existence of many is owing to it.

'But whether all these species be the offspring of time; whether, in the beginning of all things, the Creator limited the number of future species, I dare not presume to determine. I am, however, convinced, this mode of multiplying plants does not interfere with the system or general scheme of nature; as I daily observe, that insects, which live upon one species of a particular genus, are contented with another of the same genus.

'A person who has once seen the *achyranthes aspera*, and remarked its spike, the parts of its flower, its small and peculiarly formed nectaria, as well as its calyces bent backwards as the fruit ripens, would think it very easy at any time to distinguish these flowers from all others in the universe; but when he finds the flowers of *achyranthes indica* agreeing with them, even in their minutest parts, and at the same time observes the large, thick, obtuse, undulated leaves of the last mentioned plant, he will think he sees *achyranthes aspera* masked in the foliage of *xanthium strumarium*.'

'I am persuaded by many considerations, that those numerous and most valuable varieties of plants which are used for culinary purposes, have been produced in this manner, as the several kinds of cabbages, lettuces, &c. and I apprehend this is the reason of their not being changed by a difference of soil. Hence I cannot give my assent to the opinion of those, who imagine all varieties to have been occasioned by change of soil;

for, if this were the case, the plants would return to their original form, if removed again to their original situation.'

'That the sexes of plants admit of a proof *a priori* from experiments, appears, therefore, from hybrid productions.'

We have much reason to think that the translator has performed his task with ability. It is the perspicuous decisive language of a man whose ideas are clear, and whose knowledge of the subject is considerable: we can bring his work to no other test, as the original is not before us. The notes are useful, and convey much additional information on the subject: we see, with a little regret, some slight sneers at Spalanzani, who, with all his prejudices, (and who can always avoid them?) is an able, well-informed naturalist. Perhaps too we differ from our translator with respect to the character of Linnæus himself. Of his conduct as a naturalist we have always spoken with the warmest encomiums: of the accuracy and penetration of his observations we have little doubt; but we cannot admire his theoretical reasoning, or the depth of his judgment. On this subject we have formerly enlarged with sufficient minuteness.

De l'Economie Politique Moderne. Discours Fondamental sur la Population. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Hookham.

THIS flimsy wire-drawn discourse 'on Population,' seems the production of M. Herrenschwand, whose name appears at the end of the Dedication. It is published in London, and dedicated to 'Louis XVI. king of France.' If the address, in his situation, is improper, we had almost said impertinent, the Dedication deserves a severer term.—We shall select a specimen from the beginning.

'The love of truth, and of your subjects, seems, in you, an innate virtue; for you show it in every action. *I wanted a king, like you, to whom I might address a performance, whose object is the happiness of mankind, and in which I have dared to trace, with the most scrupulous exactness, the causes of their misfortunes.* If I have not asked your permission, it is because I thought I had a right to seize the rare example which your majesty presents to the world.'

When an author was once asked the reason why he flattered his patron so much, and attributed to him virtues which many supposed that he did not possess? We administer, replied he, to our mutual wants: he wants a character, which I supply him with; and I want money, with which he repays my praises. The present panegyric will reach his most Christian majesty

majesty in a very proper time; and, if our author wants an immediate voucher, he may find one in almost every inhabitant in the province of Burgundy.

M. Herrénshawand first enquires into the state of population among hunters, among shepherds, and among husbandmen. His observations have been repeated by almost every author; but, what has hitherto been included in two pages, now extends to two sheets. In this there is some novelty, but we would not recommend the example. The system of cultivation is divided into three kinds; where the lands of a nation are divided between the several families, and each cultivates his portion for his own subsistence: secondly, where the separate estates are appropriated to a few families, and the rest of the nation is reduced to slavery, and forced to cultivate the ground for the subsistence of the whole; thirdly, where the lands are appropriated only to a part of the inhabitants, and the others provide different necessaries and conveniences of life to exchange for subsistence. The first system of agriculture he calls absolute. It was that, says he, of ancient Rome; but he should have added, in a particular period of its existence as a state. The next is a relative system, founded on a system of slavery, and was that of Lacedæmon; the third is also a relative system, founded on that of manufactures, and is the system which prevails at present in modern Europe.

He examines the subject of political œconomy in all these different states, particularly as they influence population. In this work we see an affected humanity, and an attempt at precision, mixed with much trifling, many mistakes, and a language so loose and indeterminate, that we can seldom seize the idea, involved in such a wilderness of words. We have no great temptation to enlarge on a work from which we cannot present a single useful view of the subject, or one important fact. We shall translate a part of it, to display the flatterer of the French monarch, whose innate principle is the love of his subjects.

We scarcely read any work on modern political economy, in which the small wages of the workmen are not regarded as an essential requisite to the prosperity of nations; and there are few statesmen who have not considered this principle, though so little reconcilable to humanity, as one of the chief rules of their conduct. Yet there is no truth so demonstrable as the contrary opinion. Great prosperity never existed with moderate stipends; and it seems that the slightest reflection would have shewn the contradiction and absurdity of making a nation prosper, by keeping three-fourths of its inhabitants

in strait circumstances. Happily, modern political economy, with all its faults, has this advantage, that it shews us the impossibility of making a nation prosper, without the prosperity of its several classes; and we cannot have a more convincing proof of the imperfection of this science, in any nation, than to see the lower classes miserable, poorly fed, badly clothed, and indifferently lodged.'—This must be charming language to the ear of the French monarch, whose rare example the author thought he had a right to seize. It would have been well, if M. Herrenschand had looked at home, in Germany, for instance, or even in Holland, or in England. He should have looked at the situation and circumstances of flourishing states, before he had decided so peremptorily on the causes of their prosperity: but, dazzled with the glory of the French monarchy, and the French king, he forgot that the lower classes were 'poorly fed, badly clothed, and indifferently lodged.' 'Ce'st de parler du cordon dans la maison d'un pendu.'—We shall enlarge no farther: if we could have found a single specimen with a trait of reflection, good sense, judgment, or experience, we should have preferred it to that which we have given.

An Enquiry into the original State and Formation of the Earth; deduced from Facts, and the Laws of Nature. Second Edition, considerably enlarged. By John Whitehurst. 1l. 1s. in Boards. Bent.

IN our Forty-sixth Volume, p. 367, we gave a general and concise analysis of the design of the author, and the contents of his work. It now appears again, much enlarged, with several additional plates. The additions are very numerous: new observations are frequently interspersed; the language is greatly changed, and some new chapters are added, whose contents we shall now examine. If the language be improved in correctness and elegance, we think it has suffered in other respects; it was formerly distinguished by a plain simplicity, which was the surest criterion of its being the unvarnished tale, which nature had dictated from her recesses; and, though it does not at present lose much of its force by a higher polish, yet we own (perhaps we may appear too much prejudiced in its favour), but we own, that it seemed more pointed as well as more artless in the first edition.

We need not recapitulate the changes in the chapters: the observations are essentially the same. Two circumstances, which have been objected to Mr. Whitehurst, yet remain, though we wish some attention had been paid to the criticisms.

The

The one is, that toad-stone should not be ranked among the volcanic productions ; but we think that the objections on this subject are of little consequence. It has been also observed, that Mr. Whitehurst has paid too much attention to the accounts of the Dutch navigators, relating to the polar seas being free from ice. Mr. Barrington's eagerness led him to believe too easily ; for those very miraculous accounts, which he was enabled to trace up to the authors, were diminished to common transactions. If Mr. Whitehurst continues to think that ice is formed only in the neighbourhood of land ; that sea, unconnected with land, is not frozen, and much of his argument relating to the state of the antideluvian world depends on it, he ought to show why ice appears in lower latitudes as we approach to the south pole, than in the arctic regions. In the southern extremity, so far as it has been navigated, there is much less land than in the northern ; and it would be a gratuitous assertion to say, that the whole which has not been visited is firm ground, when only a slight prospect of any country has been obtained ; a part very inconsiderable, if compared with the coasts of Norway, which we meet with in nearly the same latitudes of the northern hemisphere. Indeed it may be observed, that our author is too careless about the authorities of many of his facts, and has given his antagonists much reason to object to the opinions which he has sometimes raised on them.

The additional chapters relate to the ' Rotten Stone, the Encrinus, Alteria, or Star-fish with a jointed Stem. And likewise of the Trochites, Entrochi, or Screw-Stones, which so plentifully abound in the Limestone of Derbyshire, Staffordshire, &c.—The Strata in North Wales.—Observations on the Strata in the North of Ireland, particularly on the Giants Causeway, and at Balley Castle.'

The rotten stone is, in our author's opinion, a decomposed lime-stone stratum. It indeed appears to be of this kind ; but we require other proofs before it can be properly allowed : a chemist knows nothing of the *composition* of lime-stone, except the term relate to its form, in a mass containing flinty modules, or in powder with these separated. Our author has given a plate of the star-fish, whose separate vertebræ form the star-stones ; and the entrochi, or screw-stones, arise from the separated parts of an animal of the same genus. The shale our author thinks too, a decomposed limestone ; but this decomposition also must relate to the form rather than the nature. The description of the different strata in Wales, and Ireland, illustrated by plates, are intended to show the uniformity

mity of the strata with which coals are connected. They appear to be nearly similar in England, Ireland, and Wales.

Mr. Whitehurst, in his account of the Giant's Causeway, has observed, with Mr. Hamilton, the circumstances which establish the former grandeur and prosperity of Ireland. He differs from the latter author in thinking the peat bogs of slow growth, and attributing them to a deluge either temporary and partial, or more continued and universal. We think Mr. Hamilton's opinion the more probable, for the reasons which we have assigned in reviewing his Letters. Mr. Whitehurst also mentions some marks, which seem to show that America was once peopled by a more refined and civilized race than were found on its first discovery by Europeans. We may add to his relation, that remains of pottery-ware, neatly executed and well burnt, traces of regular fortifications have been said to have been discovered in remote parts of that continent. But we feel a little hesitation in believing these very marvellous relations. America has certainly emerged but lately (we speak now by comparison) from the waters, though we may possibly find that it had been peopled previous to the inundation.

Mr. Whitehurst describes the basalt, and seems to have imbibed the opinion of Faujas de St. Fond relating to its formation. We shall relate the following very singular fact.

'At the foot of the cliff among the fragments of lava, I found a piece of iron ore, similar in appearance to the Cumberland ore, vitrified on one side, which is some testimony of the cause whereby some lavas may be magnetical, and likewise that the substances supposed to be lavas, have also been in a state of fusion.'

Another fact no less extraordinary, but somewhat more marvellous, deserves attention. We are a little incredulous about the charcoal, because we have formerly detected similar mistakes. Even philosophers, when they speak of volcanos, cannot always lose the idea of a kitchen fire.

'After so many corroborating testimonies tending to prove the origin of basalt, nothing more is requisite to ascertain the fact, but that of being an eye-witness to the operation itself; yet, as the subject has been so much controverted, it may not be improper to add the observations of Mr. Hodges, in his late tour through India, in the line of his profession: viz. That a cliff called Montagena, is wholly composed of basalt; and that under the cliff, is a spacious extensive cavern, which he thoroughly examined by the aid of torches, and observed the same columnar appearances as on the exterior parts

parts thereof, and likewise that charcoal was imbedded in the solid substance of the stone throughout the whole extent of the cavern.

'The singular appearances accompanying the above columnar bodies, with respect to charcoal being imbedded in the solid substance of the stone, seems to have been an effect produced at a time while that matter was liquid fire. That circumstance being duly considered, together with the durability of charcoal, leaves little room to doubt the origin of the substance in which the charcoal or burnt wood is inclosed.'

Mr. Whitehurst's work contains some valuable facts; and the foundation of his system, viz. actual observation, will ensure its permanency. As we spoke with approbation of his first attempt, we must not dismiss this enlarged edition without additional commendation.

Tolondron. Speeches to John Bowle about his Edition of Don Quixote; together with some Account of Spanish Literature. By Joseph Baretti. 8vo. 4s. Faulder.

MR. Bowle, it seems, is a tolondron: a strange word this, and we had almost deserved the title by mistaking its meaning. The word literally means a wheal on the skin, raised by a stripe or a blow; but its common metaphorical interpretation is a stupid ignorant pretender to knowledge: we cannot trace the first meaning down to the second, unless it be 'that the fool shall be beaten with many stripes;' and as the Spaniards are a very religious nation, perhaps we may be right. Poor Mr. Bowle, this tolondron seems too severe even for the greatest 'tolondery!' But we have almost adopted Mr. Baretti's rambling method: evil communications corrupt good manners. We must tell his story more shortly, and it must be remembered that we 'now speak by the book.'

Mr. Bowle, the editor of a superb edition of Don Quixote, in the original Spanish, seems to have been extremely angry with Mr. Baretti, for a reason that we should scarcely have supposed would have excited so much wrath as is imputed to him. During the publication the two friends, for then, at least, they were not combatants, dined together, when a proof sheet was brought in, and Mr. Baretti observed a strange confusion in the accents. He offered his assistance to Mr. Bowle, which was declined. In our author's future engagement, when he taught two young gentlemen the Spanish language, this edition came into his hands; and then he found this confusion often

often obscured the sense, and sometimes changed it. The faults were, therefore, rectified in the margin. These corrections are said to have irritated Mr. Bowle, and to have produced several publications. Some of these, viz. the Conduct of the Knight of Ten Stars, and his Italian Squire, (captain Crookshanks and Mr. Baretti); a Letter to a Doctor of Divinity, &c. have been shortly noticed at different times in our Journal *. In these publications, and some letters in the Gentleman's Magazine, which our author imputes to Mr. Bowle, Mr. Baretti and his works are so severely attacked, as to have produced the publication before us.

In this work, which is written in a rambling pleasant manner, though with great severity, Mr. Bowle is attacked on his ignorance in pronouncing the Spanish; and consequently on the random, and often improper method of placing accents. He is said also to be ignorant of the Spanish idiom, and to have given wrong or absurd interpretations of many words: to be vain of talents which he does not possess, to be irritable, petulant, &c. In short, no *tolondron* can have a greater number of faults.

On this subject we can form no opinion: the story may be greatly changed, when related by a different person, though the same facts are preserved. Mr. Baretti is angry, probably with reason; and Mr. Bowle may still be able to allege very ample provocations, if he is indeed the author of the publications mentioned. As it is more within our own knowledge, we must allow, that Mr. Bowle's Spanish is not always idiomatic; and some of his words are not very intelligibly explained. Perhaps too he has been more voluminous, in his labours as an editor, than was necessary. On some of these subjects, Mr. Baretti triumphs with reason; and his triumphs are pursued with little mercy. We cannot commend his moderation in the hour of victory; nor can we approve of his very desultory manner, or the unnecessary bulk of his work. We shall transcribe a short specimen.

* My sweet friend Jack Bowle, who, by his own confession, frequently repeated, and in a bragging manner, rather than taking shame to himself: Jack, I say, who never could speak a Spanish sentence in his life, but learnt the little he knows of it, in his closet by himself, nor ever asked any body's advice about his great undertaking; a big name he calls his edition by, as if reprinting and commenting Don Quixote, were a perforation of Mount Caucasus through and through: Jack, I say for the third time, has not even an idea about the

* Vol. lx. page 398.

Spanish pronunciation, nor about the accentuation, that regulates the reading of Spanish: therefore, throughout the edition and the comment, has placed the accents as the teatotum of his grandson directed; for he knew (by looking night and day into Spanish books) that, mean what they will, accents are wanting on many Spanish words: and, in consequence of this acute observation, he placed a good many here and there, as the teatotum directed, throughout the book; and the teatotum, I must say it, to his immortal honour, has sometimes whirled the right way, and turned up the propitious side: but, upon the whole, has proved so untoward, that, in every one of the pages, not one excepted, throughout his six quarto volumes, and pretty often in every line of every page, the accents are all placed in the wrong places, or they are omitted, which is as good an equivalent: and I, who foresaw that this would be the case, when I gave a transitory glance to one of his revises, the day we dined together at the tavern in Holborn, and pitied the blunder he was going to commit, which I was sure would annihilate his edition, made free to offer him my service in the correction of his sheets: and would, for the mere sake of literature, have looked them over with pleasure: but, forsooth! the proud tolondron, who did not even suspect he had need of such a pair of crutches, rejected the offer, as he never trusted his correction to any body but himself. Well: he has trusted to his great self, to his knowing self! But, what was the consequence? He laid out several hundred pounds in the purchase of water-bubbles, which are no very merchantable commodity; made his ignorance known to many to whom it was a secret; quarrelled with his friends, because they would no longer believe him a great Hispanist; and worked himself into a brown humour, that is likely to last to his dying day, if wine and gin, copiously drank, do not help to remove it. Is this tolondronery, or cauliflower? Give me leave, I beg, to call it tolondronery double-distilled, and no cauliflower at all.

If this dispute continues, we must beg leave to remind the combatants, that personalities never add weight to the cause of truth.

Address from Sir John Dalrymple, Bart. one of the Barons of the Exchequer in Scotland, to the Landholders of England, upon the Interest which they have in the State of the Distillery Laws. 8vo. 2s. Cadell.

THE author of this Address sets out with observing, that the court of Exchequer in Scotland, of which he is a baron, at the same time that it is a court of justice, is also the

the board of treasury for that part of the kingdom, and, therefore, bound to understand and attend to the interests of the revenue. A close attention to the duties of his office soon convinced him, that the distillery business was an object of far greater importance to the revenue, and to the landed interest of Britain, than was generally imagined. But he saw, with concern, that the trader and the officer of the revenue, in Scotland at least, stood on terms of mutual hostility; one complaining always of oppression, and the other of fraud; either or both of which must be productive of bad consequences to the public, and injure the revenue. An anxiety to reconcile these hostile interests suggested to our author the idea, that, if the tax on the distillery was regulated by the capacity of the still, instead of being, as at present, collected by the quantity and quality of the liquor, it would be almost impossible for the trader to defraud, or for the officer to oppress; because, if the measure of the vessel was once taken, it could not be altered without being immediately perceived.

Sir John Dalrymple communicated his ideas on this subject to the public in Scotland; but was restrained by motives of delicacy from pursuing the same conduct in England, because he thought that the English best understood their own affairs. Scotland, our author informs us, has universally declared for the proposed plan; and he is of opinion, that if England attended to the subject, all England to a man, except six distillery houses in London, would likewise declare for adopting it. With regard to those six houses, our author affirms, that by engrossing the whole distillery of England, a trifle excepted, a few private persons enjoy a monopoly against the landed interest, the people, and the revenue of England. For, by combining together, says he, they can fix the price of grain as they please against the landed interest, the price of their spirits as they please against the people, and the amount of the distillery tax as they please against the revenue. The manner in which our author accounts for this singularity discovers great knowledge of the subject, but for this we must refer our readers to the pamphlet.

In consequence of the plan suggested by sir John Dalrymple, a general meeting of the landed interest of Scotland, by delegates from the counties, and of a great number of men of property, was held at Edinburgh, in January last, and passed several resolutions, unanimously, relative to the subject. One of these was, that an application shall be made to parliament for a new law, for imposing a duty, by way of annual licence, upon each gallon of the still, according to its contents, for the whole united kingdom, excepting that part of Scotland which is comprehended under the late distillery act.

Another

Another article was, that the duty to be so paid should be thirty shillings upon each gallon, both of the singling and of the doubling stills. Among the benefits expected to result from this mode of taxation, it was particularly specified, that 'agriculture and distillery will be united to their mutual advantage, whereby the waste lands will be cultivated, and the population of Great Britain increased, in an astonishing degree.'

Sir John Dalrymple informs us, that the resolutions, passed by the above mentioned general meeting, were communicated by its committee to the representatives for Scotland, in both houses of parliament. But instead of prosecuting the affair in the manner recommended by the committee, it seems that a meeting of the Scots members of the house of commons, whose names our author knows not, drew up a memorial to Mr. Pitt, asking no more than a temporary relief for Scotland.

'If says the baronet, this treaty shall end either in a temporary relief got for Scotland, or in a permanent one, giving the tax by the still to Scotland alone, but not to Britain; England will lose the benefit of that mode of taxation; and, in both cases, both England and Scotland will suffer. It is impossible, in the nature of things, to collect taxes in the same kingdom by different modes of collection, without the one side getting the advantage of the other. Either the London distillers will undersell the Scots, by the advantage which a discretionary power in the officer, and consequently the opportunity of bribing him, gives to the London distiller; or the Scots distiller will undersell the English one, by the security which a tax by the still confers on the Scots one. One side will certainly cry murder, perhaps both; jealousy and quarrel between the two nations will be the consequence.

'And, therefore, I, who, when appointed a member of the committee of the general meeting of the landed interest of Scotland to carry their resolutions into effect, was intrusted with an important and honourable branch of duty—to serve not Scotland alone, but Britain; and, in terms of the resolutions of the general meeting, to invite "the landed interest of England to join the landed interest of Scotland" in this common cause—think and feel it my duty to let the landed interest of Scotland know why I humbly am of opinion, that the landed interest of England should oppose the temporary relief for Scotland, and support in parliament, the permanent arrangement of a tax by the still for Britain.'

Our author places, in a strong and clear light, the advantages which would result to the distiller, the landed interest, and the revenue, from a tax laid on in the manner specified. In the first place, the distiller would be relieved from the discretionary

cretionary power of the officer. For at present, the distiller is the only dealer in spirits, either domestic or foreign, who is obliged by statute to reduce his commodity by water to a particular standard, which is tried by the hydrometer; and the smallest variation betwixt the instruments constructed in Scotland and those constructed in England, have occasioned large quantities of Scots spirits to be seized in the Thames, upon a variation of something under two per cent. and spirits, to the value of many thousand pounds, have been detained for months, to the no small loss of the trader; first, in being disappointed of his market; secondly, in the out-lay of a very great part of his stock; and thirdly, in being taken off his business, obliged to go to London, and remaining there a considerable time, soliciting the restitution of his spirits, and which is at last obtained, only upon the condition of satisfying the person who had made the seizure. We ought not to omit mentioning, that in a transaction of this kind, the present secretaries of the treasury (our author relates it to their honour) were so sensible of the hardship, that they generously refused to take their common fees of office, when the orders for restitution passed through their hands. The fallacy of the hydrometer, as a regulator of taxation, is forcibly evinced in the subsequent passage.

* That legislators must be still more short-sighted, impolitic, and unprevident, who attempt to ascertain the quantum of the tax to be levied by an instrument, the standard of which depends merely on opinion, is sufficiently enough defined in no act of parliament to set the trader on his guard, and which philosophy itself cannot ascertain; for the hydrometer varies with the accuracy of the artist who makes it, with the dexterity and long practice of the officer (often a very young, awkward, and unexperienced one) who uses it, with the climate of different latitudes, and with the weather in the same day in the same latitude. Even the degree of warmth of the hand in holding the vessel which contains the spirit, will make a difference in the effect of the hydrometer. One of the first judges in Europe of the powers of nature and of art in chemical operations, I mean Dr. Black, professor of chemistry in Edinburgh, gave in evidence in the court of Exchequer there, in a trial, the issue of which depended on the truth of the hydrometer, that if it was corroded, it would be lighter, and make the spirits appear weaker; that, if hurt even by a dimple, it would sink and make the spirits appear stronger; that its accuracy, unaccompanied with a thermometer, could not be trusted; and that it was possible to put ingredients into the liquor to stop its operations altogether.

The second advantage resulting from our author's plan, is, that the quality of corn-spirits would be improved. This effect

effect requires some explanation. At present, a distiller pays by the wash, viz. five pence on the gallon. In order to lessen the duty, he makes the wash as fast, and consequently as strong as he can; by which means he is necessarily injured both in quantity and quality. If he was left at liberty to make the wash as weak as he pleased, which would be the consequence of a tax by the still, he would obtain two gallons more of spirits on a quarter of grain. The quality would be amended in a yet greater proportion; for spirits are softer or harsher to the taste, in proportion as the wash is strong or weak. In these losses of the individual, our author justly observes, that the public loses in the same proportion by waste, and the depreciation of a great national commodity.

The third advantage enumerated is, that the smuggling of foreign spirits will be prevented.

‘There is one, and but one way, says the baronet, to prevent the smuggling of foreign spirits, which is to make our own spirits cheaper than foreign ones. At present, the distiller pays five taxes: one to the king; a second to his servants, to bribe them not to inform the officer; a third to the officer not to inform his superiors; a fourth in the loss of time to himself, his servants, and work, in performing some parts of his work, not when he pleases, but when the officer pleases; and a fifth, in the expence, loss of time, and vexation which falls upon him, when disputes happen between him and the excise, which are considerable, even when he is successful, but are often attended with his ruin, if judgment goes against him. The extent of fines and forfeitures, with the expences accompanying them, are, I am afraid, far more considerable than the nation has any idea of. A great share of them goes to the officer; in Scotland a small share to the king, but of which he gets nothing; and all of them are real taxes on some body or other. Now, if the amount of the last four of these five taxes were thrown into one bag, I imagine they would far outweigh the fifth in another bag. But collect the tax by the still, and the manufacture will pay only one tax instead of five.’

A fourth advantage is, that Britain, instead of importing foreign spirits from abroad, will export her own to foreign countries; by which means her shipping, as well as her manufactures, will be increased. Our author observes that the Dutch pay the English tax of 13s. 7d. and 16-20ths upon British coals used in their distilleries, besides the prime cost at the coal hill, carriage to the sea, freight, commission, insurance, and carriage from the sea; all which added together, bring them about a thousand per cent. dearer than we pay for them. They purchase malt from England, in which, in addition to its original price, there are added the various expences just now mentioned relative to the article of coals:

notwithstanding which disadvantages on the two great materials employed in the manufacture of spirits, the Dutch are enabled to make this commodity of our own grain, and to smuggle it, with profit, on our own coasts. This is a most convincing proof of impolitic laws, and certainly calls aloud for their amendment.

Sir John Dalrymple next enumerates the advantages which will accrue to the landed interest from the proposed plan. The advantages of a distillery on a farm are specified to be the following: it fattens many oxen and swine, by which the price of butcher's meat is kept moderate, for the benefit of the labourer, and the cheapness of labour. It supplies food for the horses and cows (and, as our author has experienced, even to the sheep) of the farm, by which it lessens the expence of draught in the first, and of butter, milk, and cheese, in the second case. It raises a quantity of manure for the land. The crop which it chiefly requires is barley, and the cleaning the land necessary to prepare it for barley, makes it produce for the crop of that year, and two crops after it, more than it would have produced in the common way of culture in half a dozen. To all these considerations is to be added, that it presents a market to the farmer which he had not before.

The advantages which will accrue to the revenue from this plan, are described by our author as extremely important. The expence of collecting the revenue of the distillery will be diminished; frauds against the officer will be rendered almost impossible: and the revenue will be increased. According to an estimate made by sir John Dalrymple, upon principles which discover great information, the sum, of which government has been annually defrauded, in this department of the revenue, amounts to about two millions six hundred thousand pounds. 'The sum, says our author, may appear enormous: but the business of the British distillery is far greater than ministers and treasury-boards have hitherto been permitted to know.'

Some objections which may be made to our author's plan, he afterwards answers in so clear and satisfactory a manner, as tends strongly to enforce the opinion of its great utility to the public. We cannot conclude our account of this Address without observing, that it abounds with important information respecting the revenue of the distilleries; that the facts adduced by sir John Dalrymple merit the most attentive enquiry; and that the whole is written with such ardour as is suitable to the recommendation of a plan affirmed to be so interesting and advantageous to the nation; a plan which, tending to such an extraordinary improvement of the revenue, must afford a powerful accession to the other means that have lately been adopted for this purpose.

An Essay on the Population of Ireland. By the Rev. J. Howlett.
8vo. 1s. Richardson.

ON a former occasion, Mr. Howlett favoured the public with his sentiments respecting the population of England, and he has now turned his attention towards ascertaining the state of the sister kingdom in this particular. He observes, "it is a singular circumstance, that Dr. Price, who is so confident that the returns of the English hearth-tax (though now discontinued about ninety years), when compared with the present returns for the window-tax, though of a kind totally dissimilar, are a satisfactory ground from which to compute the population of England and Wales, should, at the same time, be equally confident, that the returns for the Irish hearth-tax, though continued nearly upon the same footing from the Revolution to the present day, and therefore properly comparable together for different periods within the compass of this interval, do not, however, enable us to judge either of the progress or actual state of the population of Ireland." This assertion, Mr. Howlett continues to remark, appears strangely inconsistent; and that, when we come to examine the fact, we find the truth to be just the reverse in both instances. He contends that the English returns, as far as the doctor has stated and considered them, scarcely afford any information on these subjects; while those of the Irish, on the contrary, are as full and complete to the purpose, as any thing of the kind can well be. Dr. Price's account of the latter is cited in the following words:

'The Irish returns to the hearth-tax afford no documents from which a judgment, tolerably correct, can be formed of the progress or present state of the population of Ireland. All that is known from them with certainty is the yearly produce of the tax; the average of which being for the last five years to 1781, £60,648, makes the number of hearths, (at 2s. per hearth,) to be 606,480. It is supposed that a house may be allowed for every two hearths, and that one-third of the houses are excused on account of poverty; and on these suppositions the number of houses will exceed 400,000. and consequently the inhabitants will be about 2,000,000.'

On this passage Mr. Howlett observes, that, admitting the principal fact asserted to be true, 'that nothing can be known with certainty from these returns but the annual produce of the tax, the hypothetical reasoning grounded upon it is the most inapplicable that can be conceived. Instead of there being, as is supposed, two hearths upon an average to a house, there are actually very little more than one and three-tenths;

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and instead of one-third of the houses being excused on account of poverty, there is scarcely one in twenty-six. Mr. Howlett observes, that both these assertions might be proved, if necessary; but the leading fact being false, the hypothesis applied to it is of no consequence. In confirmation that the leading fact is such, he presents us with the following intelligence, sent him by the right hon. Mr. Beresford, first commissioner of the Irish revenues.

‘ I observe, says he, from your letter, that Dr. Price asserts that nothing is here known with certainty but the produce of the tax. This assertion is certainly ill-grounded; for I take it for granted that a man of Dr. Price’s liberality of sentiment does not mean to quibble by adhering to the literal sense of these words; but must intend to be understood, that in Ireland we have not any return made of houses, but that we compute the number of them from the number of the hearths returned, or from the amount of the tax; but the fact is, that the hearth-money collector is ordered by his instructions to go, at a certain time of the year, and make an actual survey of his walk, inserting in a ledger for that purpose, the number of houses in each parish, &c. and then, after the walk is thus surveyed, he is to go it over again, and collect the tax; and, if in such second round he shall discover any new house not before discovered, he is to enter it in his ledger. Besides these precautions, we have a superior officer called a supervisor, who has generally about four collectors under him, except in cities. It is this officer’s duty to survey at least one walk in a year, and to make a return of his survey, which is intended as a check. It is clear then that there is a return of houses made in each walk, and that each walk certainly contains as many houses as are returned; and it is also to be observed, that all computations made from the number of the hearths, or the amount of the tax, unconnected with other information, must be extremely erroneous; because it is by concealing the former, and diminishing the latter, that the hearth-money collector is enabled to commit frauds. He may make a true return of the number of houses, and yet retain a considerable proportion of the tax by a false return of the number of hearths; whereas if he returned the true number of hearths, he could not defraud. He is interested, therefore, in making a false return of hearths, but has no motive to make a false return of houses.’

From this account, Mr. Howlett observes, it is extremely clear that an actual return of houses is constantly and regularly made; and though this return be not perfectly correct, yet, in all probability, it cannot be greatly deficient. So that what

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Dr. Price affirms to be the only *certainty* in the case, *the annual produce of the tax*, turns out to be the greatest uncertainty of all; though even this, by the very judicious methods repeatedly adopted by Mr. Beresford, bids fair for no inconsiderable degree of correctness.

It appears from Mr. Beresford's remarks, that the present population of Ireland must amount to at least two millions and a half; and Mr. Howlett computes, with probability, that it cannot be less than two millions and three quarters. He observes, from some estimates of good authority, that the produce of the above mentioned tax, and with it the population of the kingdom, have been constantly increasing during the last hundred years, and that both are nearly double what they were about the time of the Revolution. If, during this period, Ireland has been increasing so fast in the number of inhabitants, how much must they multiply in the course of another century, under the favourable circumstances of free trade and independence!

The History and Antiquities of the County Palatine of Durham.

By William Hutchinson, F. A. S. Vol. I. 4to. 11. 1s. in Boards. Robinsons.

THE History of the County Palatine of Durham constitutes a subordinate province of the general history of England, with which, of consequence, it is very intimately connected. On this account, the author of the present work was often under the necessity of elucidating his subject by a particular detail of the public transactions of the times; though we think that, on many occasions, he has allowed himself wider scope than was requisite for the purpose of his narrative. This remark is more or less applicable to every provincial history which we have hitherto seen; and we have formerly recommended it to the attention of those who engage in such undertakings. The life even of a studious man may find sufficient employment in the general and more important departments of literature, without perusing a multitude of voluminous works, devoted almost entirely to frivolous narrative, and which prove interesting only to few readers, to whom, from circumstances of local attachment, they are calculated to afford gratification.

The author of this History deduces his narrative from the time of the Romans, when the northern part of England was included in the province of the Brigantes. He thence continues the detail through the Saxon period, relating the origin of the bishoprick of Lindisfarne, which afterwards gave rise

to that of Dunhelm, since called Durham, towards the close of the tenth century. The territorial possessions annexed to this see by the royal grant of Guthred, and confirmed by Alfred, were very extensive; but our author does not find, from all his enquiry, that any sovereign jurisdiction was exercised by its bishops before the æra of the Conquest. About thirty years prior to this period, when it was usual for the religious body in chapter to nominate the bishop, we meet with the following account of a whimsical election to this see, after a vacancy of three years from the death of bishop Aldune.

‘ Whilst the ecclesiastics sat in chapter to agitate this important subject, a priest called Eadmund, descended of noble progenitors, but of a facetious character, entered the church, and being informed of the nature of their deliberations, and their divisions, in a jesting manner exclaims, “ Why cannot you make me a bishop ! ” The assembly, startled at the question, and knowing him to be a man of strict piety and religious virtue, received this interrogation in a more serious sense than he ever intended; for they conceived his coming there, and uttering these expressions, was by divine impulse. As many momentous concerns in that age were influenced by superstition, they determined, that thus the will of heaven had been pronounced to them, by an involuntary messenger, and all agreed in his election. Such was his humour, that it is said, at first he conceived the holy body, though met in solemn convention, were returning the jest upon him when he was told they had elected him. Being assured it was truth, he repented much of his facetiousness and jesting; would willingly have refused the nomination, and chosen to have enjoyed his secularity and benefice, with the pleasures of a life of liberty and ease, preferable to the solemnities and self-denial of the cowl; and the toil, religious care, and sacred burden of the episcopacy. Symeon, according to the religious prejudices of those times, would not suffer the account of this election to pass to posterity without aggrandizing the event, by the relation of more miraculous circumstances. Accordingly he writes, that a confirmation of the act of the chapter was heard distinctly pronounced from the shrine of St. Cuthbert: after which they laid hands on Eadmund, and constrained him to take the government of the church.’

Under what grant, or articles of service, the lands of St. Cuthbert (the bishoprick of Durham) were held by the occupants of this æra, is not precisely known; but from the metropolitical example, it is probable they were under similar conditions and services, viz. That the tenants shall perform all the attendance and duties of those who serve on horseback; that they shall be bound to all payments which belong to the privilege and customs of the church; that they likewise swear

to comply with the bishop's orders, with all submission and regard; that whenever the bishop's occasions require, they shall offer their service in person, furnish him with horses, and ride themselves; that they keep the steeple of the parish-church, where the estate lies, in repair, and assist in the building of castles and bridges; that they impale the bishop's parks, and supply him with hunting furniture; that after the expiration of three lives, the lands shall revert to the bishoprick; at which term it shall be in the power of the bishop for the time being, either to enter upon the premises, or make the tenant a new grant. It was the opinion of the learned sir Henry Spelman, upon the authority of the abbey-books, that this was the usual mode of granting church-lands in those times; and Mr. Hutchinson observes, from some particular circumstances, that the lands of St. Cuthbert were certainly held by military service. With regard to the palatine power of the bishops of Durham, most authors who have treated the subject entertain the opinion that it was prescriptive; but, according to sir Edward Coke, it commenced soon after the time of William the Conqueror. The author of the present work very justly observes, that the same cause which occasioned the creation of the county-palatine of Chester, might introduce that of Durham. The country was so situated as to make a proper barrier against the incursions and depredations of the Scots, on which account it was necessary to repose, in the vicegerent there, such powers as might enable him to render essential service to the state in times of public danger. This, certainly, appears the most rational opinion; and it is far more probable that the origin of the palatine power was founded in political considerations, than that it proceeded entirely from a veneration for the patrimony of St. Cuthbert, even in those superstitious ages.

‘ The bishops, says our author, had great extent of power, as the several records hereafter to be pointed out, in succession as they fall under every episcopacy, will evince. They had power to levy taxes for the defence and service of the palatinate, and make truces with enemies; to raise defensible troops, within the liberty, from 16 to 60 years of age, and to impress ships for war. They sat in judgment of life and death, and held execution by life or limb. They had power to create barons, who, with their vassals, were bound to attend the bishop's summons in council: and thence may be observed, the greatest part of the lands within the liberty are held of the bishop as lord paramount *in capite*. They coined money, granted licences to embattle castles, build churches, found chantries and hospitals, instituted corporations by charter, to which the crown's assent was not essential to maintain their legality; and

granted markets, fairs, &c. They had all manner of royal jurisdiction, both civil and military, by land and by water, for the exercise whereof they held proper courts, and appointed officers and other ministers of every department, as well such as the crown nominates without the liberty, as such as the king has been used to depute, according to the exigency of special cases, or for the special execution of acts of parliament. The bishop's officers by patent are, the temporal chancellor, to whom belonged the care of the levies, the custody of the armour, and pay of the troops; constable of Durham castle, the great chamberlain, under-chamberlain, secretary, steward, treasurer, comptroller of the household, master of the horse, stewards of the manors and halmot court, sheriff, prothonotary, clerks of the chancery, crown, and peace; keeper of the rolls, curfitor, registers, and examiners in chancery, clerk of the county-court, stewards of borough-courts, escheators, feodaries, auditors, and under-auditors; clerks of the receipts of the exchequer, supervisors of lordships, castles, mines of coal, lead and iron; coroners, conservators of ports and rivers; officers of the marshalsea, clerks of markets, keepers of the great seal, of ulnage, of his wardrobe and harness, and master armourer. He had several forests, chaces, parks, and woods, where he had his foresters, who held courts in his name, and determined matters relative to forests; parkers, rangers, pale-keepers. He was lord high-admiral of the sea and waters within and adjoining the county-palatine; had vice-admirals, and courts of admiralty; judges to determine according to the maritime law; registers, examiners, officers of beaconage, anchorage, &c. and he awarded commissions to regulate waters, and passages thereon.

The History of the County Palatine of Durham contains, as may be supposed, few events of an interesting nature. The assisting of the king in his wars, disputes with the metropolitan of York, contested elections, with some instances of imprisonment, and acts of violence, are the usual incidents which occur. Mr. Hutchinson appears to have bestowed great pains in examining the authorities on the subject, and he has delivered such an account as his industrious researches have enabled him to collect, of all the bishops, without interruption, from the origin of the prelacy in that part to the death of the last bishop Trevor, concerning whom the author has been much more minute than was necessary in a historian. The work is ornamented with prints of most of the bishops since the time of Wolsey, and with plates of the Durham coinage.—We imagine that the next volume of this work, as containing the *Antiquities of the County Palatine*, will prove more interesting.

Sixteen Discourses on several Texts of Scripture. Addressed to Christian Assemblies, in Villages near Cambridge. To which are added, Six Morning Exercises. By Robert Robinson. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Dilly.

AS there is somewhat original in the style and manner of the following Discourses, arising chiefly from the circumstances in which they were delivered, we shall present our readers with part of Mr. Robinson's Preface, giving some account of what ought previously to be known, in order to form a just idea of them.

'The Protestant dissenting congregations at Cambridge, from the first forming of them, have always consisted, beside inhabitants of the town, of a great number of families, resident in the adjacent villages. In these last families there always have been children and servants, aged and infirm persons, who could attend the publick worship in town only occasionally, some once a month on the Lord's supper day, others once a quarter, and the very aged only once or twice in the summer. It hath therefore being the constant practice of their teachers, in compliance with their own desire, to instruct them at their own towns about once a month. In some there are houses fitted up on purpose, and in others, barns in summer when they are empty, and in winter, dwelling-houses answer the same end. When either have been too small to accommodate the auditors, as they often have been on fine evenings, sometimes they, and sometimes the teachers, have stood abroad in an orchard or a paddock, or any convenient place. The following Discourses are a few of many which have been delivered in such places. They are printed, as nearly as can be recollected, as they were spoken.

'In some places, and in some seasons, the teacher hath tarried all night, and half an hour early in the morning hath been employed in devotion and giving instruction. The short Discourses, called for distinction sake Exercises, were delivered at such times. It was usual, too, before sermon in the evening, to catechize the children by hearing them read a short scripture history, and questioning them about the sense of it.

'The propriety of every action depends on circumstances, and nobody can judge of the fitness or unfitness of a subject, or a part of a subject, or a manner of treating of it, except they who know all the circumstances, for the same method in different circumstances would be unedifying, if not impertinent and rude. This publication, therefore, is not intended either to blame or to direct any other teacher; but merely to gratify the long and importunate requests of some in the congregations who heard the Discourses, and beyond whom we have neither the inclination nor ambition to publish them.'

This ingenious author, deeply influenced by a sense of the humble rank and limited education of his rustic hearers, has

judiciously condescended to draw most of his topics, allusions, and images, from such objects as they might be supposed best acquainted with. The extreme familiarity of his ideas and language, accompanied with considerable earnestness, and a happy variety in his applications to the affections of his audiences, seem principally to constitute the merit, and perhaps the originality, of his harangues. Though these characteristics are, upon the whole, well supported, we are too often surprised with flights of eloquence, and learned allusions, ill suited to the understandings of the generality of the persons addressed, and inconsistent with what appears to be the author's principal design. Aware of this incongruity, he attempts some plea for it in a few lines of his Preface; but it is such a one as we are the more unwilling to admit, since Mr. Robinson himself has urged it with so little confidence as to justify our supposing him suspicious of its worth.

The subjects of these Discourses are,

'I. The Christian Religion easy to be understood.—II. Almighty God the lovely Father of all Mankind.' The word lovely, thus unusually applied, has an appearance of affectation which we wonder Mr. Robinson should have fallen into. He does not seem to have meant any thing by it but kind, gracious, or beneficent.—III. We ought to be content with Providence.—IV. The Scripture is a good Book, written by divine Inspiration.—V. Jesus Christ is the principal Person mentioned in Scripture.—VI. The Merit of Jesus Christ distinguishes him from all other Persons.—VII. Jesus Christ is the most excellent of all Teachers.—VIII. The Death of Jesus Christ obtained the remission of Sins.—IX. Jesus Christ is the Governour of his Disciples.—X. The Christian Religion should not be confounded with Heathenism.—XI. The Christian Religion should not be mixed with that of the Jews.—XII. Christians should behave properly to such as give confused Accounts of Religion.—XIII. The Spirit of God guides all good Men.—XIV. Faith and Holiness are inseparable.—XV. Incurrible Sinners will be without Excuse at the last Day.—XVI. Any person who understands Christianity may teach it.

'Morning Exercises.—I. Industry.—II. Caution.—III. Frugality.—IV. Covetousness.—V. Self-preservation.—VI. The Jews.'

We think some of our author's opinions not unexceptionable; but as these Discourses are to be considered as extemporaneous, it will be candid to suppose some notions hastily taken up, and not meant to be insisted on with the utmost rigour. As a specimen of Mr. Robinson's manner, we give the following passage from the second sermon,

'A third

A third class (of men) are objects of pity; they are not without God; they do not set themselves against him; but they dread him; that is, their fear of God is excessive. The cause of this dread is a partial knowledge of God. Recollect what I said to you some time ago concerning knowing only part of a subject. This is your case: you have attended to the judgments of God; to his threatenings against the wicked, and to that punishment which awaits them in another state; but you have not turned your attention to the mercy of God, expressed in his promises, and in his dispensations of goodness to other sinners in your condition. Suppose I could take a person out of this assembly, one who had never seen the sea, and carry him in an instant to the sea-side, and set him down there; and suppose the sea at that instant to be in a storm: the great, black, and dismal clouds rolling, thunders bellowing, lightnings flashing, the winds roaring, the sea dashing ten thousand watery mountains one against another, the beach covered with shattered timber and cordage, merchandize, and corpses; this man would instantly conceive a dreadful idea of the sea, and would shudder, and shriek, and flee for his life. It would be hard to give this man a pleasant notion of the sea, especially if he had been well informed that several of his relations and friends had perished in the tempest; yet this man would have but half a right notion of the sea; for could he be prevailed on to go down to the beach a few days after, the heavens would smile, the air be serene, the water smooth, the seamen whistling and singing, here a vessel of trade sailing before the wind, there a fleet of men of war coming into harbour, yonder pleasure-boats basking in the sun, the flute making melody of the breeze, the company, even the softer sex, enjoying themselves without fear; this man would form the other half notion of the sea; and the two put together would be the just and true idea of it. Apply this to our subject. You have seen your heavenly Father reprove Adam, chide Moses, drown the old world, burn the cities of the plain, cause the earth to open and swallow up Dathan and his company, send a Joseph to prison, put a Jeremiah into a dungeon, and a Daniel into a den of lions; you have seen him tell a Paul down to the earth; not only kill an Annanias and Sapphira upon the spot, but strike a Zechariah dumb, and cleave the heart of even a Peter asunder with recollection and repentance; but to go back to these persons, and see a Paul, "preaching the faith which he once destroyed," a Peter "begotten again unto a lively hope by the resurrection of Jesus Christ from the dead;" a Zechariah filled with the Holy Ghost, and singing, "Blessed be the Lord God of Israel, through whose tender mercy the day spring from on high hath visited us, and hath delivered us out of the hands of our enemies, that we might serve him without fear, in holiness, all the days of our life." I might go farther, and affirm, that your confidence in God ought to be as much greater than your dread,

dread, as his mercies are greater than his punishments. True: five wicked cities are burned; but how many fives are preserved! one Zechariah is struck dumb for unbelief; but how many unbelievers have the gift of speech! And you, yourself, how many comforts to set against one twig of his rod! Do not add ingratitude to fear; but listen to these words sweeter than honey and the honeycomb, "Who is among you that feareth the Lord, that obeyeth the voice of his servant, that walketh in darkness, and hath no light? let him trust in the name of the Lord, and stay upon his God."

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

(Continued from p. 311.)

WE shall resume our short account of the labours of the literati on the continent, by a more extensive view than we can often afford in this department of some larger works. The great work of the baron de Marivetz and M. Gouffier, has not occurred to us in our usual circles. It is entitled, '*Physique du Monde*,' and the recent appearance of the first part of the fifth volume now brings it to our notice. The work is of the highest importance; and, though the execution is far from unexceptionable, it contains an ample and faithful history of natural philosophy. The first volume relates to the structure and formation of the earth, and contains an abstract of the different theories of cosmography: the second is dedicated to astronomy; the third to the theory of light; and the fourth contains the doctrine of colours. The treatise on fire is to fill two parts of the fifth volume, of which the first has only reached us. The authors have followed their usual method. As their object was to give a complete system of natural philosophy, they have begun with explaining the opinions of their most able predecessors, on the subjects on which they treat. This section contains all that has been said about fire, from Ocellus down to the abbé Nollet: in the next, we are to expect the opinions of living authors. As we probably shall not be able to resume this work in a more extended article, we must briefly explain their views and their opinions.

They distinguish the matter of fire from the inflammable principle. 'Fire, they say, is only the matter of light or ether.' This ether is supposed to 'penetrate all bodies, and to be perfectly elastic. When its vibrations are excited with a certain force it will re-act on every part of a body, will agitate and rarefy it: rarefaction then is the most certain sign of the presence of fire.' This is one of the old set of elements; and we must, according to these authors, add a fifth, viz. the inflammable principle, or the principle of flame. 'Flame does not always attend pure fire, which appears to exist from heat alone,

alone. A great fire or great heat may exist without flame, and the latter is often very inconsiderable in proportion to the former: flame, therefore, is not the matter of fire. The matter of fire, properly speaking, can never be carried so far as the state of inflammation, without the concurrence of the principle of inflammability.'

A modern chemist will find much to object to this reasoning; and we may observe, in general, that these magnificent volumes are too full of such general indecisive reasonings, of discussions *about* a subject, instead of rational enquiries on it. Dr. Priestley, we believe, first showed that inflammable air performed every thing attributed to the principle of inflammability; yet this kind of air is certainly a compound: pure air is undoubtedly necessary to give this fleeting principle a 'local habitation,' if not a name. The French chemists have followed him, and the best of them allow, (changing the marks only, we hope not to conceal the stolen property,) that the matter of fire is only the matter of heat or light, combined with dephlogisticated air. This opinion is not, however, very general. We must add, that the baron and his coadjutor have prefixed to this volume, answers to all the objections which their opponents have made to different parts of their work.

It is somewhat late to mention M. Sage's Newtonian Lucretius. His Memoir was published in the Berlin Memoirs, in 1784; but now first appears in a separate form. A disciple of Epicurus is supposed to have heard an account of the Newtonian discoveries, and immediately proceeds to explain them, on the principles of his master, by the mechanical motion of atoms of a peculiar kind. Suppose the atoms, empty cages, or cubes, of which we only preserve the twelve supporters, *viz.* the lines which appear when a cube is drawn on a plane. The wires of those cages are so small in proportion to the mutual distances between those which are parallel to each other, that the earth is supposed not to intercept a ten millionth part of those cubes which are opposed to it. The diameters are sensibly equal to each other, and their progressive motions in right lines. These corpuscles too are supposed so thinly scattered, that one scarcely meets another for many thousands of years; so that, though they move in every possible direction, the uniformity of their motion is seldom disturbed, and their velocity is very considerable.

M. Sage, or the Lucretian disciple, is not a little unreasonable in his demands; but, with the assistance of these peculiar bodies, he explains the Newtonian system. Suppose, says he, a concourse of atoms, moved in all directions, arrive at the surface of the earth: they will push forward to its centre, and carry with it, like hail, every thing they meet; and, as they act uniformly, they will follow the laws of gravity assigned by Galileo. Their course is not checked by the opposite current, because the force of the latter is lessened by its having passed through

through the earth. Yet the fall of bodies will be in proportion to their mass, because, in the more dense masses, more of the cages will be opposed to the solid particles.

This is a curious theory, and discovers, in the various applications made of it, a vast fund of imagination. We may, however, safely leave the confutation of it to the judgement of our readers. We think it can do no great harm, though we have much reason to suspect that it was designed to assist the cause of materialism.

While this Epicurean was explaining the Newtonian system from his atoms, *monf. de la Place* was employed in extending it by the help of his mathematical knowledge. We were lately indebted to him for the theory of the motion, and the elliptical figure of the planets, deduced from the Newtonian laws of motion, demonstrated with much neatness, and a rigorous precision. He has since published the *Theory of Attraction of Spheroids*, and a farther Enquiry into the Figure of the Planets. This subject, with respect to our earth, will probably lead to some important consequences, which we may in a future Number be better able to explain: we can only now hint at them.

The figure of the planets, at least the figure of the earth, as it in some measure modifies the effects of the sun, may have an influence on its inhabitants, and probably explain the origin of various bodies discovered in a fossil state. Our riches, in this way, are considerably increased. The *abbé Fortis*, at Verona, in a stratum of white calcarious schistus, has discovered the skeletons of many fishes and plants, unknown in our climates. The English reader may find the most accurate account of some of the principal petrified animals discovered in England, with the addition of their present habitations, in *Whitehurst's Enquiry into the original State and Formation of the Earth*. He will be surprised at the very great changes that must have occurred; at the very violent effects of some commotions in this planet, or the extensive, though gentler influence of the continued action of other causes. The *abbé* was unsuccessful in his searches through the collections of former naturalists. He could find, in their descriptions and their plates, but few of the more uncommon fishes whose forms were very perfect: in so perfect a state were they found, that one fish was overwhelmed with this calcarious matter, at the moment when he was swallowing another. At last, in *M. Brouffonet's* first Decad, he found that three species, exactly resembling, in their forms, his petrified fish, were actually caught in the South Sea, on the coasts of *Otaheite* and *Ulitea*. *M. Brouffonet's* Decads are greatly enriched by the communications of *sir Joseph Banks*.

In Germany, *M. de Cruse*, who has already discovered fossil bones of the inhabitants of warmer climates, has added to his former descriptions. We perceive that the head of a rhinoceros has

has been dug up near Worms; part of the head and jaw of another near Rudolstadt; and some distinct, though perfect bones of the same animal in other parts of the empire.

From petrefactions, the transition is easy to the natural history of living bodies. We are promised a great work from Spalanzani, relating to zoophytes, the result of a careful examination of those animals in the Mediterranean. He has published an account of what we may expect from his diligent enquiries, in a letter to M. Bonnet; and we hope to be able to gratify, in some degree, the curiosity of our readers, by a short account of it; but it is too long for this place: we have had occasion already to hint, that he is not very complaisant to our countryman Ellis.

Mr. Muller has lately published an accurate description of the testaceous animals in the seas adjacent to Denmark and Norway, and illustrated them with plates. The work has not yet reached us: we have heard the plates praised for their exactness, but know little of their elegance. As we shall find no fitter place, we may also mention Boehmer's *Bibliotheca Systematica* of Works relating to Natural History and Economics, which the author's diligence and knowledge have rendered valuable.

Natural history is also much indebted to Dr. Girtanner, for his observations, made during a whole year, on the mountains of Switzerland. He found there the tourmalin in as great perfection as in the Tyrol. The opaque tourmalins were not electrical; but agreed so nearly with the schorls, that this observer thinks they differ only from the schorls by their transparency, on which their electrical qualities depend. A discovery, he supposes, due to M. Romé de l'Isle. We may just add, that M. Haüy has stepped to this author's assistance in the science of crystallography, in a memoir lately read to the Academy of Sciences at Paris, of which we shall give some account when published, and prepare the way for it, by a review of Romé de l'Isle's defence of his system, from the attacks of Mr. Kirwan and the chemical naturalists.—But to return. M. Girtanner has discovered also a species of draba, unknown to Haller, as the product of the Swiss mountains; the draba *Pyreniaca* of Linnæus. His other remarks relate to the marmotte (*mus alpinus*) and the bouquetin of Buffon, the steinbock of Sparrman. These accounts may be the subject of future remarks. The latter must be examined soon, for the species is almost extinct in that country. Mr. Bourrit has very lately published a new Description of the Glaciers of Savoy; he gives a most magnificent view of these tremendous mountains, and describes those passes by which they may be ascended with the greatest ease. If this work does not soon appear in an English dress, we shall give a farther account of it.

In the Mineralogical part of Natural History we must not overlook M. de Bournon's Essay on the Lithology of St. Stephen,
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in *Foras*, and on the Origin of Stone Coal ; with Observations on Flints, Jaspers, Rock-flints, and Granites. The work is of real importance, since it leads us from the appearance of bodies, and even their chemical nature, up to their source. Though many strata of coal, he thinks, may be attributed to petrified wood, yet every appearance, in the neighbourhood of St. Stephen, contradicts this opinion of their origin. In fact, the more we examine, the less satisfied we shall be with the theory of coal being derived from vegetables. Mr. Parmentier formerly attributed many of the bitumens to the exuviae of animals, and M. de Bournon thinks the origin of coal may be attributed to an immense quantity of moluscae and zoophytes. This opinion certainly derives some support from the circumstances in which coals are found : it must only be recollected, that, in many strata, the bituminous argil or schistus is impregnated, in consequence of a secondary operation, viz. a sublimation of inflammable matter from subterraneous heat. In this way we find old exhausted lavas impregnated with bitumen, and, as baron Born informs us, actually become coal. M. de Bournon supposes that the acid of these animals, combining with their oily matter, forms a bitumen, which penetrates the strata adapted to receive it, and changes them into coal. Successive strata are changed in the same manner ; so that we only find coal in schisti and grits, never in granits, whose texture is too close to receive the decomposed matter. In the region which was the subject of the author's examination, he shows, that the basis comes from the ruins of the neighbouring mountains, which are all composed of quartz and mica. He thinks that, in this operation, the animal acid is changed to the vitriolic ; but this opinion is not sufficiently supported. We are more inclined to adopt part of his theory, and admit, that the oily matter may be of animal origin ; and that, in the fossil strata, it finds the vitriolic acid necessary for its change into bitumen.

The petro flex, flex and jasper, are easily distinguished by their appearance from pure quartz : they crystallize in no regular figures, and contain some foreign matter, which prevents that regular form. The author thinks that this is also an oil. The flex is probably owing to a quartz, with the oil produced by the decomposition of marine animals ; for it is found in calcareous strata of animal origin. The petro flex is changed by a vegetable oil ; for it is found in schisti, which discover the remains of vegetables. The jasper is owing to the quartz, combined with the mother-water, left after the crystallization of granite, containing an oil, with some remains of quartz, which, deposited and combined with clay and iron, produce jaspers. Agate, sardony, and chalcedony, which are stones of this kind, do not crystallize in an angular-form, on account of the oily matter : if they lose it, the crystals are what are called rock-crystals.

This

This system, which is received with respect on the continent, we have shortly mentioned, as it is new and curious. There may perhaps be too much imagination, and too little observation or experiment, to induce us to adopt it; yet we have lately seen acids and oils assume forms which we should not have expected; let us then wait in silence, and examine this theory with care.

The foreign chemists have not been idle: we defer the account of their labours merely because they would lead us too far; but they shall be carefully attended to in our future Numbers. There is nothing that we have so anxiously aimed at, as to convey information in this branch; for there is nothing so necessary, as the numerous imperfect English works in the chemical department have long since shown.

We should now close the present sketch; but we think it right to give the earliest information in our power on a subject that may be of importance. M. Munch has published a dissertation, at Gottingen, in German, entitled, *A Practical Treatise on the Belladonna, and its utility in preventing and curing Hydrophobia*; with two plates of the plant. It was the subject of the author's thesis, which as usual, scarcely reached beyond the walls of the university; but is now much enlarged. The author compares this plant with the henbane and nightshade, recommended by Scopoli; gives its botanical description, its effects as a poison and a remedy, its dose in hydrophobia, and its antidote when used in too great quantities.

The physicians at Naples have lately recommended the common lizard, raw, to cure cancers, lues venerea, and scurvy. Dr. Baldini's '*Observazione sul' Uso Medico de Ramarri,*' really contains some ingenious remarks, and new observations. This fashion of eating lizards was brought from Spanish America. It was discovered at Guatemala, that the lizard, or female lizard, was a specific for cancers and other disorders: this discovery was announced in 1782, by Dr. Joseph Flores, at Madrid. The manner in which the medicine was to be taken was so disgusting, that we expected to hear no more of the remedy. The head and tail of the animal was to be cut off, the entrails taken out, and the animal to be eat immediately, raw and warm. Its effects were, however, striking: after one had been eat every day for five days, a warmth on the skin came on; a considerable perspiration and salivation ensued; the saliva was thick and yellow; the sore grew more clean, and lost its offensive smell. Dr. Flores recommended the lizards for syphilis, hydrophobia, and cutaneous eruptions: Baldini seems to have followed his steps; and, to fill his work with wonders, tells us that he can cure bilious and intermittent fevers with vervain.

Though we have extended our article beyond its bounds, yet we shall pursue the history of the lizard. The experiment repeated with the Spanish lizard succeeded; this animal resembles the garden lizard of France, and, from the plate, seems
similar

similar to the English species. The gentlemen, commissioned by the Royal Society of Medicine at Paris, to examine the subject, recommend the animals of their own country; but we must wait for the result of their trials. We may here add also, that the phiteuma, an Alpine plant, resembling the lobelia siphilitica of Canada, has been successfully employed in venereal diseases. We have mentioned these facts as they appeared of great consequence: we own ourselves a little incredulous concerning the effects of remedies; but let no one smile at the lizards, for from South America we received the bark.

As we may not soon be able to resume the medical works, we must now mention a French Medical Journal, of increasing credit. It is contained in an annual volume, and the second has lately appeared. It is entitled, 'Nouvelles Instruatives &c. de Medecine, Chirurgie, & Pharmacie.' M. le Sue, the son of the anatomist who translated and illustrated Monro's Treatise on the Bones, with splendid plates, has translated the tract on 'Comparative Anatomy' also. In Italy, we find that useful collection entitled 'Racolta di Opuscoli Medico-pratici;' is continued. The ninth volume was lately published, in octavo, at Florence; and we shall conclude this article with transcribing its table of contents.

A Memoir on the Small-pox, which was epidemic at Mantua, in 1784. By Dr. Felix Asti.

A Discourse on Putrid Fevers, with Two Dissertations on the Epidemics which occurred at Gênes, in the Years 1741, 1742, and 1743. By M. J. Pratolongo.

An Examination of some Opinions on the Nature of putrid Fevers, translated from the English of Dr. Millman.

A Discourse on the contagious Nature of the Phthisis.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

P O E T R Y.

The Scottish Village: or, Pitcairne Green. A Poem. By Mrs. Cowley. 4to. 2s. Robinsons.

MRS. Cowley, the authoress of this poem, is well known to the public for a variety of productions, which have been received with general approbation. Having repeatedly displayed her powers in the several walks of dramatic composition, her enterprising genius now soars into the regions of descriptive poetry. This piece, we are informed, owes its origin entirely to the accidental perusal, in the news-papers, of the ceremonies lately used at Pitcairne Green, in Scotland, on marking the boundaries of an extensive village to be erected on that spot, for the purpose of introducing the Lancashire manufactures into the northern part of the kingdom. This trans-
action

action appears to have in a peculiar manner affected the delicate sensibility of the poetess; and, destitute as it is of all fantastic circumstances, she has nevertheless adorned it with such luxuriance of poetical imagery and sentiment as affords the most convincing proof of the vigour, the richness, the beauty, and splendor of her imagination. After a poetical exordium, expressive of regret at the termination of pastoral tranquillity, she introduces a hoary seer, who emphatically describes the moral evils which ensue from enlarged population, but enlivens his prospect with the future glories that generally result from the increase of affluence and learning. In the expectation that our readers will be inclined to peruse the whole poem, we shall present them only with a few lines as a specimen.

‘ But happier still ! Learning shall raise the pile
Design’d the fret of ages to withstand ;
Within, the classic scholar form his style,
And pour instruction thro’ the list’ning land.
Ah ! from its walls some future sage may burst
To charm or awe the centuries to come ;
A Thompson in its cells be haply nurs’d,
A Blair shed splendor o’er the chosen dome.
The lawgiver from thence shall draw the seeds
Of growing honour, dignity, and fame,
Here shall ensue the future splendid meeds,
That crown his labours, and extend his name.
A Mansfield, Erskine, Loughborough, shall rise,
The boast of genius in untasted times,
Spreading our glory round the distant skies,
And mark us envied by more happy climes.’

The plan of this poem is not only conceived with justness of taste, and executed with energy of sentiment; but, exclusive of one or two blemishes, proceeding from inadvertency, and not worth mentioning, there is in the versification a degree of pathos and solemnity, happily adapted to the general design of the composition. When Mrs. Cowley has proved so successful in the description of scenes which she has never seen, what may we not expect, should she afterwards turn her thoughts towards celebrating the universally acknowledged beauties of her beloved Devon ?

Sublimi feriam sidera vertice.

An Anticipation of the Review of the Horse Guards and Horse Grenadiers. By Timothy Twaddle, Esq. Poet Laureat to the Troops. 4to. 1s. Stockdale.

The author's title-page is somewhat exceptionable; the anticipation is of the circumstances which precede the review; for of the review itself there is very little said. The poetry is not always animated, and it is occasionally inharmonious; but the descriptions are humorous, and the satire pointed. Since the
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days of the inimitable and unimitated major Sturgeon, arrows of this kind have, however, lost much of their sharpness.

' These, from Tyburn's grim precincts, and Paddington's plains,

And from Marybone march, where the nymphs with their swains
Trip to fiddles no more—mark their swords keen and bright,

At home no less friendly than fatal in fight :

For there, they in times of inglorious ease

Leave the hacking of squadrons for slicing of cheese,

Like the world's ancient masters, their wearer's combine

Arts with arms, and the soldier and citizen join—

With his scales in his hand in celestial state,

As Jove sits dispensing and weighing our fate,

So the balance of Europe their valour controls,

As their hands guide the beams which weigh candles and coals ;

Peace and war in each bosom alternately burns,

Eggs, fame, butter, honour, presiding by turns.

' But alas ! can my Muse e'er describe what she felt,

At a scene, which the heart of Alecto would melt,

When offering up vows for their parting protectors,

The sobbing Andromaches clung round their Hectors ;

While each sweet Astyanax threw by his rattle,

To cry o'er papa, arm'd for slaughter and battle.

' As when city barges prepare to explore

'Twixt Chelsea and Chertsey each far distant shore,

Where rashly embark'd on the merciless waves,

Toils and dangers unheard-of the swan-hopper braves,

One parting embrace wife and daughter demand,

E'er the signal yet calls the dear man from the land.

He, firm and unmov'd, cries, dear friends, cease to mourn,

There are dangers 'tis true, but I yet may return ;

Tho' if not, O remember, I go not to share

Merely pastime, but honour and death with the may'r !'

From this specimen our readers may judge of the merit of this Anticipation. It may raise a temporary smile in the metropolis ; but its humour will evaporate, when carried to a greater distance.

The Patriot's Vision ; or, the Triumph of Opposition. 4to. 11s.
Stockdale.

A prophetic view of those days

' When your sweet boy shall grace Britannia's throne,

And faction boast a monarch all her own.'

Some well-known characters in the opposition are treated with great severity ; and the facetious Peter Pindar receives, with great justice, a handsome drubbing, for his wanton abuse of a most respectable character. Some trifling errors might be pointed out in this little performance, which seems written from the heart, and displays both feeling and poetical abilities.

The Age of Genius! & Satire on the Times. By T. Busby, 4to. 3s. Harrison.

Some sensible remarks and shrewd observations appear thinly scattered through this epistle, which is, however, in general so obscure, that it is not easily understood.

Ode to Superstition, with some other Poems. 4to. 1s. Cadell.

' Hence, to the realms of night, dire demon, hence!
Thy chain of adamant can bind
That little world, the human mind,
And sink its noblest powers to impotence.
Wake the lion's loudest roar,
Clot his shaggy mane with gore,
With flashing sary bid his eye-balls shine,
Meek is his savage sullen soul to thine!
Thy touch, thy dead'ning touch, has steel'd the breast,
Where, thro' her rainbow-shower, soft Pity smil'd;
Has clos'd the heart each godlike virtue blest,
To all the silent pleadings of his child.
At thy command he plants the dagger deep,
At thy command exults, tho' Nature bid him weep!'

This exordium, and the other parts of the Ode are not inferior to it, is spirited and harmonious. The lesser poems are elegant and pretty.

Elegiac Sonnets. By Charlotte Smith. The Third Edition. With Twenty Additional Sonnets. 4to. 3s. Dodsley.

We received the first edition of these Sonnets, with the cheering smiles of approbation: they were reviewed in our Fifty-seventh Volume; the public confirmed our award, by an extensive demand, and they are now arrived at the third edition. These are only sonnets, as they consist of fourteen lines, and include a single sentiment: they are not so in another respect, viz. the number of rhymes; for, in the legitimate sonnet, the rhymes should be only four, and a slight, but limited, regularity is required in the versification. We do not object to the author's having neglected these rigid rules. Our pleasure, in reading, is seldom increased by the *difficilis labor ineptiarum*.

The new sonnets are, 'To Mrs. G——. —Written on the Sea Shore.—From Petrarch.—From the Thirteenth Cantata of Metastasio.—To the Earl of Egremont.—To Mr. Hayley.—To the Countess of A——. —Supposed to be written by Werten.—By the same.—To the River Arun.—XXVII.—To Friendship.—To Miss C——. —To the River Arun.—Written in Farm Wood, on the South Downs, May, 1784.—To Melancholy. Written on the Banks of the Arun.—To the Naiad of the Arun.—To a Friend.—To Fortitude.—XXXVI.'

These are distinguished by the same elegance, the same harmony of versification, and are coloured by the same gloomy peace. We are sorry to see the eye, which can shine with so

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much

much poetic fire, 'sullied with a tear; and we hope the soothing of the favoured Muse may wipe it from her cheek.

A Poetical Epistle from the Ghost of Dr. Johnson, to his Four Friends: the Rev. Mr. Strahan, James Boswell, Esq. Mrs. Piozzi, J. Courtenay, Esq. M. P. From the Original Copy in the Possession of the Editor. With Notes critical, biographical, historical, and explanatory. 4to. 3s. Harrison.

A few lines of text are overwhelmed with whole pages of marginal notes: we were at first at a loss to account for this peculiarity; but we suspect that our author added his notes, as an amulet, to preserve his poetry from the criticism which would otherwise be fatal to it. Indeed the lines are generally harmless and inoffensive: the couplets end with similar sounds, and what would the most fastidious critic desire more? The sting is in the notes, where the author transcribes many passages from Mr. Strahan's Preface, Mr. Boswell's Journal, Mrs. Piozzi's Anecdotes, and Mr. Courtenay's Review. We shall select a short passage both from the poetry and prose. It is the beginning of Johnson's address to Mr. Boswell.

' O Bozzy! Bozzy! how shall I begin
To speak of thee—whose all-approving grin,
As 'on we journey'd thro' thy native isle,
Oft made me lose remembrance of the toil!
' But soft—thy honest pride why should I check?
' All hail, Dalblair! hail, laird of Auchinleck!'
Who boasts, from princes, even since the flood,
The mighty honour of descending blood—
Who, tho' a soldier from his own first choice,
Urg'd by the musick of a father's voice,
The road of honour dutiously declin'd,
And humbly sloop'd, with him, to retail wind—
Who had in many foreign countries been,
And many things a many times had seen;
But, unlike misers hoarding up their pelf,
He made the weakest cunning as himself,
While they perus'd th' originals he wrote,
And large quotations he knew how to quote—
Whose full-stuff'd bosom, like a parish chest,
All my old stock of principles possess'd;
But from the dust and mould divinely free,
Which still clung to them while they stood with me—
Who had of learning a sufficient store;
And so much wisdom, he could gain no more.'—

We shall transcribe a short extract from the notes, on this part, as a specimen of our author's wit and good nature.

' Mr. Boswell speaks—" I have given a sketch of Dr. Johnson; my readers may wish to know a little of his fellow traveller:

veller : {myself !} Think, then, [O think !] of a gentleman of ancient blood, the pride of which was his predominant passion ! he was then in his thirty-third year, [“ So young, and yet so witty !” Shakesp.] and had been about four years happily married ! [Happy, happy man !] His inclination was to be a soldier ! [“ He would be a soldier, would sweet Jemmy-O !” — Bravo !] but his father, a respectable judge, had pressed him [what a pity !] into the profession of the law ! He had thought more than any body supposed ! [wonderful !] and had a pretty good stock of general learning and knowledge. [Charming !] He had all Dr. Johnson’s principles, [what a stock !] with some degree of relaxation ! [Better, and better !] He had rather too little, than too much prudence ; [that’s a pity !] and, his imagination being lively, [who would have thought it ?] he often said things of which the effect was very different from the intention. [Strange !] He resembled sometimes

“ The best good man, with the worst natur’d muse !”

[O the wicked jade ! the cruel, ungrateful jilt !]

Boswell’s Journal, p. 46, 47.

If our reader is displeased, we can only assure him, that we have ‘ culled the choicest.’ To Mrs. Piozzi he is less complaisant ; and his unsuccessful attempt to torture her language into indecency deserves the severest reprehension. In short, we have smiled at the peculiarities of these authors, and have laughed with those critics who, with wit, and good humour, have criticised them ; but we can never be pleased with petulance and ill-nature, and cannot commend those strictures which, instead of tickling, are meant to wound. In our own warfare, we should severely regret giving pain to one honest heart. The author seems to have been aware, that his strictures might be censured on these grounds, and has supposed Johnson to conclude with the following line,

‘ I praise my friend, just as my friends praise me.’

This plea we fear will not avail him : the *intentions* of the different authors, which are examined in this epistle, seem to have been to honour their friend, and add to his fame. We have little doubt, however, in saying, that they have considerably detracted from it. If our epistolary author’s design was equally good, his defence might be allowed ; but there is always a difference in the degree of guilt, as well as in the punishment allotted for murder and manslaughter.

N O V E L S.

Juliana. A Novel. By the Author of Francis the Philanthropist.
3 Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d. sewed. Lane.

There is an error in the title-page : read ‘ by a very distant Relation’ of the Author, &c. for we can find little resemblance

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between

between the works. The personages in this novel are very good sort of people; they lose their sweethearts unexpectedly, and find them again very opportunely. Titles and fortunes are also poured on their heads, we neither know why or from whence: but what is probability compared with novelty, and 'the consummation devoutly to be wished' for by each love-sick damsel, a happy marriage at the conclusion?

The History of Sandisford and Meriton. A Work intended for the Use of Children. Vol. II. 12mo. 3s. Small 8vo. Stockdale.

In our Fifty-seventh Volume we gave an account of the first part of this work. The continuation is not, however, equally interesting. We lose the native spirited naiveté of the young peasant, and we do not follow the pupil of wealth and luxury with equal pleasure, because the improvements are less rapid, and we see him immersed in dissipation. The glowing hand, which sketched the picture with so much spirit, seems fatigued; and, unless it is again re-animated, we shall be contented with announcing only the subsequent volumes.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Anecdotes of the Learned Pig. With Notes, critical and explanatory; and Illustrations from Bozzy, Pionzi, &c. &c. 4to. 1s. 6d. Hookham.

A popular subject, and a respectable name, draw forth every adventurer from Grub-street, eager to share in the honours, or more probably the emoluments, of the harvest. We have not received the several authors, who have endeavoured to apotheosize Dr. Johnson, with great complacency. They have certainly stepped beyond the proper limits of propriety; and the portraits which they have delineated are rather caricatures than likenesses. On the other hand, Johnson has been deprived of much fair fame, by their injudicious attempts, and may well exclaim

— Pol me occiditis amici
Non servatis.

The present author describes the Rambler under the title of the Learned Pig; but we are not less disgusted with him who ridicules a respectable man for personal deformities, or inelegant manners, than with another who, instead of describing the individual, paints a 'faulstest monster.'

Dialogues of Lucian. From the Greek. Vol. III. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Longman.

In our review of Mr. Carr's first volume, we gave some remarks on this author; and, in the account of the succeeding volume, and in our extensive analysis of Dr. Franklin's translation, the subject of the several pieces, as well as the designs of Lucian, and the tendency of his writings, are considered at some

some length*. We need not, therefore, repeat what may be found in the several places referred to.

Mr. Carr continues to deserve the character which we formerly delivered. He preserves 'the wit of Lucian in language neither formal nor vulgar:' there is an ironical archness in his manner, which he has happily caught from the original; and the dry solemnity, or rather the gravity, peculiar to true humour, is preserved amidst the roar of the applauding table.

Mr. Carr hints, that he may continue his version; but, though this may be, in some degree, unnecessary, since we possess the complete translation of Dr. Franklin, yet readers of different dispositions may be differently affected with each.—If we were carefully to appreciate the several merits of the rival translators, we might allege, that Dr. Franklin preserves the dignity and force of Lucian with greater steadiness, and that Mr. Carr darts the flashes of his wit with more dexterity, and effect: the one is a complete rhetorician, and a powerful logician; the other gives the full force of his author's sneers, and points his irony often with great success. We own our regard for Dr. Franklin's memory and his works; but justice demands also for Mr. Carr the tribute of a wreath.

There are a few words, such as *absolute fright*, *throtling*, &c. which approach to vulgarity: 'pray you avoid them;' and, if some of Lucian's insipid and doubtful works are omitted, the translation will not lose in its value.

'In ages far remote from the present, men of wit were sometimes very dull, and sometimes wanted prudence. To creep after dulness, can only serve to benumb the senses; and to revive the language of riot, is not the most decent attempt. Several drowsy discourses, with a competent allotment of ribaldry, have been attributed to Lucian, by his editors; the omission of which would have done his memory no manner of harm. Of this the reader may judge for himself: long dissertations, nearly a-kin to the former, may be met with in almost any great book; and the latter is repeated every evening, with modern improvements, in the emphatical English of Broad St. Giles's.'

This volume contains the Dialogues of Lucian, and the Triumphs of the Gout, in the elegant poetry of Mr. West.

A Letter to Robert Heron, Esq. Containing a few Brief Remarks on his Letters of Literature: by one of the barbarous Blackheads of the lowest Mob, who is 'a true Friend to Religion, and a sincere lover of Mankind.' 8vo. 1s. Wilkie.

This judicious author has properly called himself 'a true friend to religion, and a sincere lover of mankind.' He ex-

* The first volume of Mr. Carr's translation occurs in our Thirty-sixth volume, p. 125; the second in the Forty-seventh volume, p. 444. Dr. Franklin's version occurs in the Fiftieth volume, p. 419, and volume fifty-first, pages 81 and 257.

postulates with Mr. Heron, sometimes in an indignant, but always in a serious tone, on the bad tendency of many of his opinions, particularly his apparent contempt of religion, and his disrespectful treatment of royalty. We have felt much pleasure from this Letter, and receive, with great satisfaction, the assistance of so able a coadjutor, since we have also reprehended Mr. Heron, and endeavoured to direct his splendid talents, for he really possesses them, to a road more honourable and advantageous. We hope he will follow the advice of this author, whose candour and good sense render him not a less pleasing than able guide. 'The barbarous blockheads of the lowest mob,' is one of Mr. Heron's polite appellations of the literary men of the present age.

An Essay on the Pre-eminence of Comic Genius: with Observations on the several Characters Mrs. Jordan has appeared in. Small 8vo, 1s. Becket,

This is a pleasing little essay, and greatly superior to the usual style of those authors who wish to pay their devoirs to the merits of a favourite actress. The essayist seems well acquainted with modern literature; and his style is generally neat, and sometimes rises into elegance. 'In support of the pre-eminence of comic genius,' because it comes more nearly home to men's 'business and bosoms' than the distresses of a princess or a king, he scarcely steps out of the beaten tract; but, if he does not inform the reader, he entertains without offending by any impropriety.

To Mrs. Jordan he is very complaisant, perhaps a little too partial, but that fault may be easily forgiven. Let us extract a short passage.

'The severity of criticism has denied to this great actress the attribute of personal beauty. To mere beauty her real friends will readily relinquish the claims which might be made in her favour; for she possesses those attractions which are *beyond all beauty, and above all praise*. Her countenance presents to the spectator a representation of strong expression and animated diversity: the *vivid brightness* of her eye illustrates every speech with *ineffable* power and *unerring* brilliancy: her laugh is tinged with the most exquisite humour, exciting at once merriment and delight: she possesses in an eminent degree the power of *impregnating* her voice, in its various modulations, with the effusions of sentiment, and the vicissitudes of passion. Her pronunciation is beautifully correct, and with equal success deviates into levity, or rises into eloquence. We may truly say of Mrs. JORDAN, that all her attitudes are expressions, and that every gesture is a useful precept to present competitors and future performers. She represents, with a new polish,

"Those nameless graces which no methods teach,
And which a master-hand alone can reach,"

' Her

* Her general action, her lively behaviour, and her serious deportment, are all supremely graceful; she seems to possess that by intuitive elegance, which others arrive at by long study and repeated application.

Her admirer (we mean it not in an improper sense) describes her in different characters.—In the Country Girl,—She would and she would not,—the Romp,—and the Virgin unmasked, she is the principal ornament of the scene. To the Strangers at Home, and in the Trip to Scarborough, she is scarcely less essential. Viola, in the Twelfth Night, she plays with exquisite sensibility; and the Irish Widow, with equal spirit. We agree, in general, with the essayist; and think more highly of Mrs. Jordan's talents, since she can render, in many plays, even nonsense and obscenity pleasing.

De Motibus Planetarum in Orbibus Excentricis secundum Theoriam Newtonianam Dissertatio. Auctore Guil. Halet, B. D. 8vo. 11. 6d. Faulder.

The Corollaries to the Sixteenth Proposition of the First Book of the Principia, are no less intricate than important. Our author thinks that commentators have scarcely elucidated it, or at least not clearly and happily. Indeed he might have extended his remark to many other passages in that great work; for the Jesuits, the principal commentators, are frequently more unintelligible than Newton. Our author has not only explained these Corollaries, and his explanation is both clear and concise, but drawn from them a theory of the motions of bodies, in very eccentric orbits. Where a few words are sufficient, he has interweaved them with the text, included in brackets; but, where it required so many steps as to distract the meaning of the author, he has subjoined the necessary explanation in the notes. His account of the comet in 1759, and M. Clairaut's well-timed publication, relating to its delay, is very just.

Mr. Hales next examines the variety of the orbits, which a change in the law of centripetal force, or of the velocity with which the body begins its revolution, at any given part of its course, will produce, in order to show with what precision the former laws of gravity are established. This task he undertakes for the sake of 'the minuter philosophers,' who object to the revolution of comets, because they cannot perceive by what power these bodies are prevented from falling into the sun when they descend to their perihelion, and to convince them of the truth of the Newtonian system. In this, as well as in the former part of his little work, he succeeds well; and we are pleased to think that we may receive more instruction from him on similar subjects: 'Si a gravioribus detum vacatio? Quænam optime, dari possint graviora?'

Improved Latin Orthography. Phædrus; or, Phaidros' Fables, in Latin, adapted to the Use of Learners and others, by some Change in the Spelling, together with additional Vowel Characters and Marks, &c. being Volume the First of the Latin Authors; which all are intended by the Editor to be published successively in said Manner. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

Though, in pursuit of learning, we should not be terrified by appearances, and, anxious to attain the end, should not be scrupulous about the forms; yet uncouth and awkward modes will often repress that ardor which is essentially necessary to produce even a salutary reformation. Our author seems little affected by these appearances: he can probably contemplate, with the predilection of an improver, the work before us, from which we have more than once turned with disgust. This is not an unjust censure; for, even in his Introduction, the pages are deformed by more than one ungraceful mode of printing English words.

The end in view is to distinguish the long and short vowels by different marks, in the manner of writing or printing them, and not by accents; to ascertain the sounds of some of the consonants, particularly the C, which our author thinks should be always sounded hard like K; to divide the diphthongs according to the analogy of Greek, from which the Latin is originally derived. These changes, in our author's opinion, will not only facilitate the pronunciation, without the help of pro-
body; but distinguish between similar words of different meanings, and, in general, improve the sound.

There is a vein of good sense, and much real knowledge, in the Introduction, though greatly disguised by the peculiarities of the author, which we suppose will prevent his method from coming into general use; and the Fables of Phædrus will probably be the only classic published in this way. We shall conclude with a short specimen of his manner, and it shall be the shortest that we can select.

* The want of articles in the Latin being a source of frequent ambiguity, the general and particular acceptations of nouns being thus left undistinguished; also the suppression of prepositions oft rendering the cases less distinguishable (the terminations not being sufficiently varied); it is the more requisite to mark the diverse acceptations by the present changes: ex. *manus* put for nom. and g. s. and nom. and acc. p. but here four ways diversified. To find out the case, number, &c. by the context, is to look for and evidence it by the help of middle terms, or mediately, i. e. circuitously, and oft conjecturally; but this mode is *immediate* and intuitive, or self-evident: Ex. *editis*, *ye eat*, *editis*, *ye put forth*, *edit'ois*, 'ais, tois, tais, *published*, *edit'ois*, 'ais, ois, *lofty*, in dat. and abl. pl. where ten acceptations are differenced, which are ordinarily confounded and expressed by *editis* only. Could the Romans be so gross as

to

to pronounce these alike? or *cœca*, *sec*, *seni* *assaci*, &c. or *aelestis* and *colestis* alike, and so of a multitude of words. The Greek has *ἐν*, fut. of *ἔγω* to differ. from *ἐν* without.

Miscellaneous Tracts by the late William Bowyer, Printer, F.S.A. and several of his learned Friends. Collected and illustrated with occasional Notes, by John Nichols, Printer, F.S.A. Edinb. 4to. 1l. 1s. in Boards. Nichols.

The learning and abilities of Mr. Bowyer have been sufficiently evinced by his various productions in literature, formerly communicated to the public. The present Tracts afford additional evidence of his distinguished qualifications; though, like many other posthumous works which owe their publication to partiality, they have not all an equal claim to our attention. Several of the pieces in this collection were written by Mr. Bowyer's friends; particularly Gale, Clarke, and Markham, and a great part of the volume consists of extracts from his correspondence with the two last. The literary remains of eminent men are generally well received by the world; for which reason Mr. Nichols, by the publication of these Tracts, has performed an office not less the effect of friendship, than acceptable, we believe, to the public.

Observations on Live Stock. By George Culley, Farmer at Foston, Northumberland. 8vo. 3s. Robinsons.

These Observations are the result of a very intelligent enquiry, and great knowledge. They relate to horses, sheep, swine, rabbits, mules and asses, goats, deer, and poultry. He describes the different kinds of these animals, enquires into their origin, and instructs us in the comparative advantages of each variety. There is a blunt honesty in Mr. Culley's manner, by which we are strongly prepossessed in his favour: he relates his 'plain unvarnished tale' with great candour, and strong appearances of truth. We find nothing which would instruct or amuse in an extract; but shall enlarge on a few particulars: we must observe that our author's Observations are not complete; for he expressly tells us, and repeats it with an anxious caution, that he has never visited Sussex or Devonshire.

Mr. Culley is very strenuous in recommending particular breeds, as they are adapted to different situations; and thinks, that if this subject was more carefully attended to, England might support double its present number of inhabitants; so great is the difference between the times required to fatten, and the food necessary to increase, the several varieties to a given state. We are glad to find that the Lincolnshire breeders are weary of their coarse woolly sheep; but we fear the evil is now too deeply rooted to admit of a remedy. We have often foretold the scarcity of fine wool, from this cause, and we now begin to feel its effects. Mr. Culley is a great advocate for float-
ing

ing the sheep-walks; but his method has, we know, been attended with inconveniencies. The author, in different parts of his work, gives some surprising instances of the uncommon size of oxen, sheep, and swine. The observations on the smaller beasts are of little consequence.

In the Appendix is an account of the names of the different animals, at different periods; and, in another Appendix, the means of knowing the age of cattle, and the uncertainty of some of the marks commonly employed. On the whole, we can recommend this treatise to the grazier and breeder, as useful, though plain; and as instructive, though peculiar in its language.

A Description, with Notes, of certain Methods of Planting, Training, and Managing all Kinds of Fruit-Trees, Vines, &c. For which his Majesty's Letters Patent have been granted to the Rev. Philip Le Brocq, M. A. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Shepperson and Reynolds.

This is a quaint title, and we at first suspected that the notes might be musical ones; but we found that there was little harmony in the performance. The author gives a good abridgement of his pamphlet, which we shall transcribe.

‘There may be three different methods of preparing banks, beds, &c. for the reception of fruit-trees; vines, or any fruit-bearing shrubs or plants, to be principally adopted; beside various other modes not mentioned in this pamphlet. One method is, to train your trees on banks or beds, raised higher than the surface of the ground; the second is to train them on beds level with; and the third on banks or beds below, the surface of the circumjacent ground. This last, though rather more expensive than the other two, has some considerable advantages over them. One of the most striking and obvious is, that the trees are not so much exposed to the blights which frequently float in the atmosphere, and which, sometimes, in a few hours, irretrievably blast and destroy all hopes of a plentiful produce. The cold winds blow over them without mischief. The rays of the sun are more reflected, and the heat, consequently, is increased.’

We do not think, with him, that fruit against a wall is much finer, and better flavoured; the nearer it grows to the ground. If a grape-vine be planted against a very high wall, the grapes on the upper part ripen first, and are distinguished by a finer taste. The cause of this seems to be, that the bunches enjoy a greater warmth; for the warm air rises from the earth, and reaches them with the accumulated heat of each part of the wall. If the wall is not high, the remark will probably be true.

We hope that the author will one day be indulged with a glass of good English wine; and that his method of procuring it may not be rejected, because he has communicated his thoughts in so flowery, affected, and reprehensible a style.

A Pa-

A Panegyric on Great Britain, in Imitation of the Funeral Orations of the Ancients. By Edward Hankin, A. M. 8vo. 1s. Hookham.

The political constitution of Great Britain has been the subject of eulogy to many writers, as well of our own as of foreign nations; but the climate of the country, in point of its variableness at least, has not been so universally admired. Mr. Hankin, however, finds sufficient foundation for panegyric in the temperature of the climate, and not only in this, but in every other circumstance which he remarks,—the fertility of the soil, the personal qualifications of the inhabitants, the flourishing state of commerce, the military and naval glory of Britain, &c. &c. If, after all, the people of Great Britain should be discontented with their lot, let them not plead ignorance of the numerous blessings they enjoy; for Mr. Hankin assures them of their distinguished happiness, and let them, therefore, be thankful.

The English Clergy's Right to Tythes examined, in order to promote Peace and Union between the Clergy and Laity; and to prevent Law-suits. By an Old Farmer. 8vo. 2s. stitched.

We have often found so much good plain sense, and strong argument, in the writings either of real or pretended *Old Farmers*, that when we meet with this signature affixed to any production, we are apt to conceive a favourable opinion of the author's sagacity. The instance now before us confirms the justness of this sentiment. The author contends, that for several ages after the promulgation of Christianity, what was paid to the church was entirely in the way of gratuitous offerings. In England, the establishment of tythes was introduced by king Offa, in the year 794. But the Farmer insists that Offa had no legal right to this exercise of authority; and that the origin of the practice being unjust, every subsequent law, enacted upon the same foundation, must likewise be repugnant to equity. With regard to the doctrine of prescription in cases of this kind, that, according to Blackstone, 'you cannot plead prescription against the king, because he is so great, or he is so strong; neither can you plead prescription against the church, because it is so little or so weak,' the Farmer confesses that he does not relish this ambo-dexter way of reasoning, as he calls it.

The author farther observes, that supposing the authority exercised by Offa to have been legal, yet as the improvements in husbandry required greater expences than were known in his time, the clergy had no right to any part of those expences which Offa knew not of, and, therefore, could not intend in his gift. The *Old Farmer*, as we have already intimated, makes many shrewd observations, but being a party in the dispute, his opinions are warped with self-interest. Perhaps the best means for promoting peace and union between the clergy and laity, which is acknowledged to be the object of this pamphlet,

phlet, would be, for the former to abate of their demands, and the latter to increase their liberality.

Observations concerning the Medical Virtues of Wine. In a Letter to Dr. Buchan, by a Gentleman of the Faculty. 8vo. 1s. Stewart and Stevenson.

The Observations are the remarks of some respectable physicians, so trite, by frequent repetition, that there are few medical readers who cannot repeat them. Wine is undoubtedly a good cordial, and living well a good prophylactic against debilitating diseases. As to the tokay d'Espagne, we are not much acquainted with it; but the whole tract would suit, excellently well, a wine merchant; and to *these* gentlemen we recommend it. Perhaps it may have originated from this source; for it *wonderfully resembles, in all its parts, a quack bill.*

The Night-cap. By Mr. Mercier. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Hookham.

In our last Volume *, we gave some account of this work, and a specimen of the execution. The translation is not often accurate; and we seem to have felt more sensibly, than even in the original, a want of interest in the different parts. We shall make a few remarks on the mistakes which occur in the passage we have quoted, in the volume referred to.

The translator tells us, that Spalanzani has 'published his new experiments on digestion, and let those on generation escape.' This is not true; for the latter subject is examined with as much care as the former; and, what is of more consequence, Mr. Mercier does not say so. 'Skilful speculators have made ingenious researches and delicate experiments,' &c. It is not common that 'speculators' make experiments; Mercier says Philosophers. 'Diphlogistic' instead of 'dephlogificated.' The 'doctrine of assimilating ferments' we do not understand: it should have been the effects of ferments, or the doctrine of fermentation. 'Water may be changed without passing through the retort.' It cannot be changed by passing through the retort, and Mr. Mercier has made a very different observation. 'Expansive ocean,' instead of 'expanded;' sea-water is become potable,' instead of 'is to be made potable,' &c. &c. But we need not enlarge on these errors; and we ought to acknowledge that the author is more correct on general than on scientific subjects. We, however, have no reason to think that his translation will repay his labour; since we rise from reading the work with languor, and return to it with indifference.

A candid and impartial Sketch of the Life and Government of Pope Clement XIV. Vol. III. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Symonds.

This author continues to draw his Sketch in a manner which is plausible, but not entirely free from the suspicion of having misrepresented, at least, the principal person in his narrative.

He affects a more intimate acquaintance with the politics and private transactions of the Vatican, during the pontificate of Ganganelli, than we can reasonably suppose to have been acquired by a private individual, and, according to his own insinuation, a native of this country. It is a just observation, that most men have two characters, one which is given them by their friends, and another by their enemies. Were we to determine this author's affections as a biographer, we could not hesitate a moment to rank him among the enemies of Ganganelli.

Account of the present Arrangement of Mr. James Tassie's Collection of Pastes and Impressions from ancient and modern Gems. By R. E. Raspe. No Publisher's Name.

The labours of this ingenious artist, in executing imitations of ancient gems, are sufficiently known to the world, and have met with general approbation. By his present catalogue the collection amounts to twelve thousand different articles of ancient and modern engravings. Under the former of these are arranged Egyptian hieroglyphics, sacred animals, divinities, and priests; with Basilidian, Gnostic, and other abraxas, talismans, and amulets, oriental and barbarous engravings. Next to these are Greek and Roman originals, copies, and modern imitations. This class is distinguished into four subdivisions; the last of which is the historical age; and this is again subdivided into the history of Carthage, Greece, and Rome, with historical subjects unknown. Under modern engravings are arranged religious subjects of the Old and New Testament, legends, Christian allegory, portraits of sovereigns, and celebrated persons, in alphabetical order; with cyphers, arms, supporters, and a variety of miscellaneous productions relative to modern history. The arrangement has been made by Mr. Raspe, who appears to be well acquainted with his subject, and to have acquitted himself with a degree of diligence suitable to the great merit of the collection.

Essays on Scripture Metaphors, Divine Justice, Divine Mercy, and the Doctrine of Satisfaction. By W. Ludlam, B. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Davis.

These Essays afford ample proof that the author is a man of discernment and philosophical reflection. They all are deserving of approbation, particularly that on Scripture Metaphors.

An Address from a Clergyman to his Parishioners. By W. Bromley Cadogan, M. A. 8vo. 6d. Rivington.

The evangelical doctrines of which Mr. Cadogan treats, are Original Sin, Grace, and imputed Righteousness. That he recommends the consideration of them to his hearers with sincerity, we are fully persuaded; but the Address is not distinguished by any strain of eloquence, frequently attempted on such occasions.

Memoirs

Memoirs of a Social Monster; or, the History of Charles Price
12mo. 3s. sewed. Kearley.

Two narratives of this extraordinary impostor were lately published, in the form of pamphlets; but the subject is now extended, in these Memoirs, to a moderate volume. It presents us with a large collection of biographical anecdotes; many of them entertaining, and all of them evincing a disposition powerfully bent to artifice and deceit. With regard to versatility of character, Charles Price appears to have been a Proteus. The names which he assumed are innumerable; and no man was ever more successful in the art of personifying, for obtaining some treacherous purpose. Such Memoirs, even though they should not be entirely authentic, yet, if probable, have, we think, a claim to utility. For, by holding forth examples of artifice, they serve, in some degree, to sap the foundations of imposition.

† If, says the editor, they effectually warn one thoughtless youth from the destructive ways of wickedness—if they retrieve from the errors of past proceedings but one unthinking man, who has deviated from the line of moral rectitude—if they guard one able and indigent creature only, against falling into the snares and temptations with which his most mortal enemy is hourly alluring him;—and if they operate, in general, with all good men, as encouragements to perseverance in public and private virtues, our pains will be truly profitable.—These Memoirs may then be considered as arrows that hit, but do not hurt; and, that though they penetrate the heart, yet they are pointed with—gold.

The volume contains a fac simile of Charles Price's usual handwriting, and of his disguised hands: besides which it is decorated with a plate, representing him in three different forms, viz. in his usual dress; in his *parsonic* disguise, as Price's uncle; and in the disguise of Old Patch, in which he negotiated the forged bank notes.

Doubts concerning the free Navigation of the Scheldt, 8vo. 3s. 6d. Faden.

In this volume the count de Mirabeau delineates, with much political knowledge and judicious observation, the views of his imperial majesty and the empress of Russia. The dispute concerning the Scheldt is, for the present, compromised; but how long the force of treaties will continue to restrain the ambition of the Austrian potentate, the count de Mirabeau does not take upon him to determine.

ERRATA.—P. 399, l. 2. for *Strictures* read *Pictures*, and for *Pelushole* read *Pelushole*.

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